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HARVARD UNIVERSITY

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THE

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

TIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,

SESSION OF THE YEAR 1887.

HELD AT

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION.

SALEM, MASS.:
OBSERVER BOOK AND JOB PRINT,
1 CITY HALL AVENUE,
1888.

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departments, and a Board of Trustees to be constituted as hereinafter provided. Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf: and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life. Whenever a life-member desires to become a life-director, he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for his life-membership.

SEC. 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Directors, Life-Directors, President of the Council, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors; and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

SEC. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs: but no person shall be elected to any office of any department, or of the Association, who is not, at the time of the election, a member of the Association.

SEC. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

SEC. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive and, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said Board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees; and, when approved by said Board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors. held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

SEC. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body, shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, excepting those herein entrusted to the Board of Trustees; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

SEC. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for a term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the election of the Trustees, in 1886, one trustee shall be elected for one year, one for two years, one for three years, and one for four years, and annually thereafter, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association, one trustee shall be elected for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a Trustee from two consecutive annual meetings of the Board shall forfeit his membership therein. The Board of Trustees thus elected and constituted shall be the executive financial officers of this Association, as a body corporate, as conferred by the certificate of incorporation under the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, dated the twenty-fourth day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., and recorded in Liber No. 4, "Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia."

SEC. 10. It shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to provide for the safe keeping and investment of all funds which the Association may receive from life-directorships, or from donations; and the income of such invested funds shall be used exclusively in paying the cost of publishing the annual volume of Proceedings of the Association, excepting when donors shall specify otherwise. It shall also be the duty of the Board to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association, acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; and, when practicable, the Trustees shall invest all surplus funds exceeding one hundred dollars, that may remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

SEC. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall cppoint.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

SEC. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

SEC. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting, by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.
2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.
3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its Proceedings.
4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author; nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of Proceedings, without consent of the Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.

ACT OF INCORPORATION.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, held at Saratoga Springs, New York, July 14, 1885, the following resolution was passed:—

Resolved, that a committee of three be appointed to secure Articles of Incorporation for the National Educational Association, under United States or state laws, as speedily as may be.

N. A. Calkins, of New York, Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts, and Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio, were appointed such committee.

Under the authority of the resolution quoted above, and with the approval of the Committee, and by competent legal advice, the chairman obtained a

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION.

We, the undersigned, Norman A. Calkins, John Eaton, and Zalmon Richards, citizens of the United States, and two of us citizens of the District of Columbia, do hereby associate ourselves together, pursuant to the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, under the name of the *National Educational Association*, for the full period of twenty years, the purpose and objects of which are to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States: * * * To secure the full benefit of said Act, we do here execute this our Certificate of Incorporation as said Act provides.

In witness whereof we severally set our hands and seals this 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C.

Norman A. Calkins, [L. S.]
John Eaton, [L. S.]
Zalmon Richards. [L. S.]

Duly acknowledged before Michael P. Callan, Notary Public in and or the District of Columbia, and recorded in Liber No. 4, "Acts of Incor- oration for the District."

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Organized.
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Sec.

1858.—CINCINNATI, OHIO.
Z. Richards, Pres.
J. W. Bulkley, Sec.
A. J. Rickoff, Treas.

1859.—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. Rickoff, Pres.
J. W. Bulkley, Sec.
C. S. Pennell, Treas.

1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. Bulkley, Pres.
Z. Richards, Sec.
O. C. Wight, Treas.

1861, 1862.—No Session.

1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, Pres.
James Cruikshank, Sec.
O. C. Wight, Treas.

1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. Wells, Pres.
David N. Camp, Sec.
Z. Richards, Treas.

1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, Pres.
William E. Sheldon, Sec.
Z. Richards, Treas.

1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, Pres.
S. H. White, Sec.
S. P. Bates, Treas.

1867.—No Session.

1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, Pres.
L. Van Bokkelen, Sec.
James Cruikshank, Treas.

1869.—TRENTON, N. J.
L. Van Bokkelen, Pres.
W. E. Crosby, Sec.
A. L. Barber, Treas.

1870.—CLEVELAND, OHIO.
Daniel B. Hagar, Pres.
A. P. Marble, Sec.
W. E. Crosby, Treas.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—St. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, Pres.
W. E. Crosby, Sec.
John Hancock, Treas.

1872.—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, Pres.
S. H. White, Sec.
John Hancock, Treas.

1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. Northrop, Pres.
S. H. White, Sec.
John Hancock, Treas.

1874.—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White, Pres.
A. P. Marble, Sec.
John Hancock, Treas.

1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, Pres.
W. R. Abbot, Sec.
A. P. Marble, Treas.

1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, Pres.
W. D. Henkle, Sec.
A. P. Marble, Treas.

1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newell, Pres.
W. D. Henkle, Sec.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treas.

1878.—No Session.

1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
John Hancock, Pres.
W. D. Henkle, Sec.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treas.

1880.—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, Pres.
W. D. Henkle, Sec.
E. T. Tappan, Treas.

1881.—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, Pres.
W. D. Henkle, Sec.
Eli T. Tappan, Treas.

1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. Orr, Pres.
W. E. Sheldon, Sec.
H. S. Tarbell, Treas.

1883.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Eli T. Tappan, Pres.
W. E. Sheldon, Sec.
N. A. Calkins, Treas.

1884.—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Pres.
H. S. Tarbell, Sec.
N. A. Calkins, Treas.

1885.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, Pres.
W. E. Sheldon, Sec.
N. A. Calkins, Treas.

1886.—TOPEKA, KANSAS.
N. A. Calkins, Pres.
W. E. Sheldon, Sec.
E. C. Hewett, Treas.

1887.—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, Pres.
James H. Canfield, Sec.
E. C. Hewett, Treas.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICERS FOR 1886-7.

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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

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* See Constitution, Art. IV., Sec. 2.

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N. A. CALKINS	New York	" " " 1890.
H. S. TARBELL	Providence, R I.	" " " 1889.
ZALMON RICHARDS	Washington, D. C.	" " " 1888.
AARON GOVE	Denver, Col.	*Ex Officio.*

"The Board of Trustees shall be the executive financial officers of this Association, as a body corporate."—*Art. IV., Secs.* 9, 10 *of the Constitution.*

N. B.—Information relative to the volumes of Proceedings of this Association, for previous years, may be obtained by addressing the *Chairman*, or the *Secretary*, as above. The Custodian, appointed by the Board of Trustees, for the care of the several volumes of Proceedings of the Association, also of the Council of Education, is Zalmon Richards, 1301 Corcoran Street, Washington, D. C.

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The *dates* in the margin indicate the year when the several memberships began. The addresses given are the same as last year, except in cases where information of change of residence has been furnished. Where there is a reasonable doubt as to residence it is indicated by (?). The names printed in *Italics* represent those who attended the meeting at Chicago.

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1879. Philadelphia Teachers' Institute. *Geo. H. Stout,* Representative for 1887.

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1887. *Parker, Chas. J.,* South Chicago.

KANSAS.

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1886. *Jewett, A. V.,* Abilene.
1886. *Taylor, A. R.,* Emporia.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1887. *Hunt, Mary H.,* Hyde Park.

MISSOURI.

1886. *Greenwood, J. M.,* Kansas City.

NEW MEXICO.

1877. *Marshall, T. Marcellus,* Chamita.

NEW YORK.

1885. Hall, Caleb G., New Berlin.
1881. *Rickoff, Andrew J.,* New York.

LIFE-MEMBERSHIPS.

ALABAMA.

881. Woodward, G. A., Selma. (?)

ARKANSAS.

886. Jay, Walter M., Van Buren.

COLORADO.

83. *Gove, Aaron*, Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

84. Barnard, Henry, Hartford.
84. Northrop, Birdsey G., Clinton.
1870. Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

4. Bell, Alex. Graham, Washington.
0. *Hiltz, John*, Washington.
1864. *Richards, Zalmon*, Washington.
1880. Wilson, J. Ormond, Washington.

GEORGIA.

1. Mallon, Mrs. Frances C., Atlanta.
1880. Setzefaud, A., Dalton. (?)

ILLINOIS.

Allen, Ira W., Chicago.
Allyn, Roflert, Carbondale.
Brown, Geo. P., Bloomington.
Cheney, Augustus J., Chicago.
Eberhardt, J. F., Chicago.
1876. *Forbes, Alex.*, Chicago.
1884. *Hayward, Emily A.*, Springfield.
1884. *Hewett, Edwin C.*, Normal.
1884. *Raab, Henry*, Belleville.
1876. Schmitz, J. Adolph, Elgin.

INDIANA.

Bell, W. A., Indianapolis.
Hobbs, B. C., Bloomingdale.
Irwin, J. S., Ft. Wayne.
McRae, H. S., Marion.
1877. Smart, James H., La Fayette.
1876. *Stevens, M. C.*, La Fayette.
1876. *Thompson, L. S.*, La Fayette.

IOWA.

Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City.
Crosby, W. E., Des Moines. (?)
Gilchrist, J. C., Cedar Falls.
1886. *Pickard, J. L.*, Iowa City.
1884. Taylor, Henry J., Sioux City.
1884. Willis, William A., Iowa City.

KANSAS.

Campbell, A. G., Council Grove.
Carruthers, Mrs. A. J., Salina.
Clark, Frank Howard, Beloit.
Coover, N., Wilson.
Fairchild, Edwart S., Ellsworth.
Klock, J. E., Emporia.
Larrimer, Henry G., Topeka.
Limerick, A. H., Winfield.
MacDonald, John, Topeka.
McVicar, Peter, Topeka.
Meade, Richard C., Atchison.
1886. Miller, J. H., Holton.
1886. Roop, C. Y., Holton.
1886. Rose, George E., Rosedale.
1886. Sawhill, Thos. Alex., Concordia.
1886. Schuyler, A., Salina.
1886. Stanley, Edmund, Lawrence.
1886. Tillotson, D. C., Topeka.
1886. Vail, Thos. H., Topeka.
1886. Williams, Philo Jesse, Lawrence.

KENTUCKY.

1877. *Bartholomew, W. C.*, Louisville.
1877. Kalfus, Anna F., Louisville.
1877. Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Louisville.

MARYLAND.

1876. Newell, M. A., Baltimore.
1876. Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore. (?)

MASSACHUSETTS.

1884. Bascom, John, Williamstown.
1882. *Bicknell, Thomas W.*, Boston.
1864. *Hagar, Daniel B.*, Salem.
1876. Harris, Wm. T., Concord.
1870. Jones, D. W., Roxbury, Boston.
1880. *Marble, Albert P.*, Worcester.
1886. *Mowry, Wm. A.*, Boston.
1865. *Sheldon, Wm. E.*, Boston.
1870. Tourjee, Eben, Boston.
1870. Wilcox, M. C., Boston.

MICHIGAN.

1870. Heywood, C. W., Scotts.
1866. *Mayhew, Ira*, Detroit.

MINNESOTA.

1870. Phelps, Wm. F., St. Paul.

MISSOURI.

1886. Evans, Chas. H., St. Louis.
1864. Pennell, C. S., St. Louis.
1876. Rollins, James S., Columbia.
1877. *Soldan, F. Louis*, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA.

1876. Beals, S. D., Omaha.
1880. Bibb-Sudborough, Grace C., Omaha. (?)
1884. Curry, Robert, Palmyra.
1884. *James, Henry M.*, Omaha.

NEVADA.

1887. *Young, Charles S.*, Reno.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1876. *Rounds, C. C.*, Plymouth.

NEW JERSEY.

1880. Spring, E. A., Perth Amboy.

NEW YORK.

1871. Anderson, John J., Brooklyn,
1864. Bradley, P., Lyons. (?)
1879. *Calkins, N. A.*, New York.
1880. Coe, E. M., New York.
1883. *Corey, Lucien B.*, Hicksville.
1864. Cruikshank, James, Brooklyn.
1864. Danforth, Edward, Elmira.
1883. Day, Mrs. Albert, New York.
1876. Dorna, G. Videlia, New York. (?)
1882. Hodgdon, Josephine E., Brooklyn.
1879. *Hoose, James H.*, Cortlandt.
1885. Hunter, Thomas, New York.
1879. Kraus, John, New York.
1882. Morris, Hattie N., Brooklyn.
1880. *Rickoff, Mrs. R. D.*, New York.
1882. Stern, M., New York.
1884. Van Aiken, Mrs. G., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA.

1881. Bingham, Robert, Bingham, P. O.

OHIO.

1870. Arey, Oliver, Cleveland.
1884. Bennett, C. W., Piqua.
1880. Bennett, Hampton, Franklin.
1880. *Brown, Leroy D.*, Columbus.
1880. *Burns, J. J.*, Dayton.
1870. Cole, W. H., Marysville.
1883. *Coy, Eliab W.*, Cincinnati.
1866. Curran, U. T., Sandusky.
1880. *Davidson, C. C.*, Alliance.
1881. De Wolf, Daniel F., Columbus.
1880. Dutton, Bettie A., Cleveland.
1876. *Hancock, John*, Chillicothe.
1865. Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union.
1883. *Harvey, Thomas W.*, Painesville.
1870. Holden, L. E., Cleveland.
1879. McMillan, Reuben, Youngstown.
1880. McMillan, Mrs. S., Youngstown.
1880. Miller, Lewis, Akron.
1880. Peaslee, John B., Cincinnati.
1882. Robert, J. A., Dayton.
1880. *Stevenson, R. W.*, Columbus.
1882. *Tappan, Eli T.*, Gambier.
1870. *White, Emerson E.*, Cincinnati.
1880. Widner, Esther, Dayton.
1870. *Williams, Mrs. D. A.* (*Lathrop*), Delaware.

PENNSYLVANIA.

1876. Brooks, Edward, Philadelphia.
1879. Foster, Rachel Gordon, Philadelphia. (?)
1879. Gratz, Simon, Philadelphia.
1865. Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg.
1880. Partridge, Lelia E., W. Philadelphia.
1879. Paxon, Joseph A., Philadelphia.
1879. Shippen, Edward, Philadelphia.
1880. Singer, Edgar A., Philadelphia.
1884. Stewart, Sarah A., Philadelphia.
1865. Wichersham, James P., Lancaster.

RHODE ISLAND.

1872. Stone, E. M., Providence.

TENNESSEE.

1887. *Conway, Clara*, Memphis.

TEXAS.

1877. Franklin, M. B., Grapevine. (?)

VIRGINIA.

1870. Manly, R. M., Richmond.

WISCONSIN.

1884. Albee, George S., Oshkosh.
1884. Aylward, John Arthur, Black Earth.
1884. *Beck, George*, Platteville.
1884. Carpenter, J. H., Madison.
1884. *Chandler, W. H.*, Madison.
1884. Charlton, E. A., Brodhead.
1884. Clark, L. H., Tomah.
1884. *Eden, Philip*, Platteville.
1884. *Emery, J. Q.*, Ft. Atkinson.
1884. *Flavin J. T.*, Watertown.
1884. Graham, Robert, Madison. (?)
1884. *Harvey, Lorenzo Dow*, Oshkosh.
1884. Howland, H. C., Eau Claire.
1870. Hoyt, J. W.,
1887. Hutton, A. J., Platteville.
1884. Nye, Chas. H., Platteville.
1884. *Parker, Warren D.*, River Falls.
1884. Parkinson, John B., Madison.
1884. Rusk, J. M., Madison.
1884. Shaw, Samuel, Antigo.
1884. Stark, Joshua, Milwaukee.
1884. Stewart, I. N., Appleton.
1884. *Stearns, J. W.*, Madison.
1884. *Thayer, J. B.*, Madison.
1884. Twining, N. C., Monroe.
1884. Whitford, Wm. C., Milton.

PERPETUAL MEMBERSHIPS.

KANSAS.

1886. Abilene—President Board of Education.
1886. Dodge City—Dodge City Schools.
1886. Manhattan—Riley County Teachers' Association.
1886. Ottawa—Board of Education. *G. S. Harvey*, Representative for 1887.
1886. Sedgwick—Sedgwick City Schools.
1886. Winfield—Cowley County Teachers' Association.

WISCONSIN.

1884. Beloit—Board of Education.
1884. Board of Regents of State Normal Schools.
1884. Janesville—Board of Education. *C. H. Keyes*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Janesville—Public School Teachers.
1884. La Crosse—Board of Education.
1884. Milwaukee—Alumni Association of City Normal School. *Mary J. McCullough*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Milwaukee—Board of Education.
1884. Milwaukee—County Teachers' Association, *S. A. Hooper*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Milwaukee—Intermediate and Upper Sections, Milwaukee Teachers' Corps. *Lizzie V. Moore*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Milwaukee—Primary Section. Milwaukee Teachers' Corps. *Mary B. Peterson*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Milwaukee—Principals' Association. *Mary L. McCutchan*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Milwaukee Spencerian Business College. *N. E. Anderson*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Oshkosh—Board of Education.
1884. Platteville—Athenæum Literary Society, State Normal School. *J. H. Evans*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Platteville—Philadelphian Society, State Normal School. *Frank M. Williams*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Platteville—State Normal School. *D. McGregor*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Watertown—Board of Education. *C. F. Viebahn*, Representative for 1887.
1884. Wisconsin County Superintendents' Association.
1884. Wisconsin Principals' Association.
1884. Wisconsin Teachers' Association.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the National Educational Association of the United States was opened with a concert by the Thomas Orchestra Company, in the Exposition Building, Chicago, Illinois, on the evening of Tuesday, July 12th, 1887, at nine o'clock; and at the close of the musical numbers, the officers of the Association and of its departments, and the speakers of the evening, took their places on the platform; and President Sheldon called the meeting to order.

Addresses of welcome were delivered by Mayor Roche, of Chicago; by Hon. Allan C. Story, President of the Board of Education of Chicago; by George Howland, Superintendent of City Schools of Chicago; and by A. G. Lane, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Cook County, Illinois. To these the President of the Association made response, and introduced Hon. Richard Edwards, State Superintendent of Illinois, who delivered the introductory address on the theme, "The Problem of To-day."

At the close of the address, and after the usual notices by the President, the meeting adjourned.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Morning Session.

The Association met in Central Music Hall. After an organ voluntary by Mr. George Emerson, of Chicago, the meeting was called to order by the President, at nine o'clock. Prayer was offered by State Superintendent Edwards, of Illinois.

On motion of E. E. White, of Ohio, the Chair then appointed the following committees:

Committee to report on the Educational Exposition for the Volume of Proceedings for 1887:

Chairman, **George P. Brown, Illinois; Aaron Gove, Colorado; W. A. Mowry, Massachusetts; F. Louis Soldan, Missouri; Jerome Allen, New York; Albert Salisbury, Wisconsin; J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.**

Committee on resolutions :

Chairman, T. J. Morgan, Rhode Island; A. E. Winship, Massachusetts; W. W. Parsons, Indiana; J. H. Hoose, New York; Clara Conway, Tennessee.

Committee on Necrology :

Chairman, R. W. Stevenson, Ohio; Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia; Mary S. Cooper, New York; E. W. Coy, Ohio; H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island.

Committee on nomination of officers :

Chairman, E. E. White of Ohio; Solomon Palmer of Alabama, T. A. Futrall of Arkansas, Ira G. Hoitt of California, James H. Baker of Colorado, D. N. Camp of Connecticut, George P. Brown of Illinois, L. S. Thompson of Indiana, Henry Sabin of Iowa, A. R. Taylor of Kansas, W. H. Bartholomew of Kentucky, John M. Ordway of Louisiana, W. M. Stetson of Maine, M. A. Newell of Maryland, W. A. Mowry of Massachusetts, J. W. Ewing of Michigan, D. L. Kiehle of Minnesota, J. M. Greenwood of Missouri, H. M. James of Nebraska, Charles S. Young of Nevada, C. C. Rounds of New Hampshire, Joseph Clark of New Jersey, N. A. Calkins of New York, H. S. Jones of Pennsylvania, Thomas J. Morgan of Rhode Island, W. R. Garrett of Tennessee, J. Baldwin of Texas, S. B. Brown of West Virginia, J. B. Thayer of Wisconsin, Charles M. Strauss of Arizona, Zalmon Richards of the District of Columbia, C. L. Howard of Montana, P. L. Williams of Utah, A. J. Anderson of Washington Territory, N. C. Lyte of Wyoming.

The Chair announced that vacancies would be filled as soon as it could be known what teachers were present from the States and Territories yet without representation on this committee.

A. D. Mayo offered resolutions touching government aid to education in the South, which were referred to the appropriate committee.

On motion of the Secretary, C. H. Keyes, Superintendent of the city schools of Janesville, Wisconsin, was elected Assistant Secretary.

The programme for the morning was then taken up as follows : Theme: "The Psychological and Pedagogical Value of the Modern Methods of Elementary Culture."

In the absence of Thomas Davidson, of New Jersey, J. W. Stearns, of Wisconsin, spoke on the " Socratic Element."

John W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, presented a paper on the " Objective Element."

F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri, presented a paper on the " Philosophic and Scientific Element."

W. N. Hailmann, of Indiana, presented a paper on the " Natural or Developing Element."

The discussion of the theories involved in the last topic was opened by a paper by W. T. Harris, of Massachusetts; who, being unable to be present and having given the President due notice, sent a letter which was read [at the request of the President] by Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York. Following in this discussion were George P. Brown, of Illinois, J. H. Hoose, of New York, and A. E. Winship, of Massachusetts.

A short intermission was then taken, after which a communication from Miss Frances E. Willard was read, touching the work of the W. C. T. U. and the White Cross movement. It was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Brief papers on the practical side of the theme of the morning were then given, as follows:

By J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri, on the "Art and Method of Questioning Adapted to Ordinary School Work;" by H. S. Tarbell, of Rhode Island, on "Examinations as Tests for Promotion in Public Schools;" by Aaron Gove, of Colorado, on "Methods of Conducting Examinations in Ordinary School Work by the Class Teacher."

A general resume and discussion was then given by C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire.

The meeting then adjourned to meet at the same place, at eight o'clock, P. M.

An over-flow meeting was organized during the session, under Henry Sabin, of Iowa, as Vice-President, in the Madison-Street Theatre; where the above programme was duplicated, except that portion which followed the intermission.

Evening Session.

The evening session opened with an organ voluntary by Mr. S. B. Sabin, of Chicago. The meeting having been called to order, President Sheldon in the chair, responses and greetings were read from the superintendents of instruction of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Quebec, and from the Educational Institute of New Brunswick.

Mrs. Rickoff moved that a committee of three be appointed by the Chair, to report, in 1888, upon the subjects commended to the attention of the Association in the communication from Miss Willard, which was presented at the morning session. The motion prevailed. The Chair appointed the following as such committee: Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York, Mrs. Delia Lathrop Williams, of Ohio, Miss Cushman, of Oregon.

Mr. Charles A. Blanchard, of Illinois, then offered a resolution touching a use of the Bible in the public schools. It was referred to the appropriate committee.

The regular evening session was then opened with prayer by the Rev. Mr. Bolton, of Chicago.

President Sheldon then briefly reviewed the facts connected with the Ordinance of 1787, which was the theme of the evening.

Ex-President I. W. Andrews, of Ohio, spoke of the "Historical Bearings of the Ordinance upon the Problems of Social and Political Life in the United States."

Ex-President J. L. Pickard, of Iowa, spoke of the lessons taught by the ordinance and its history in regard to the future educational policy of our government.

B. A. Hinsdale, of Ohio, spoke of the general influence and results of opening the North-West Territory.

Thomas A. Banning, of Illinois, spoke on the sixth section of the ordinance.

After notices of the committees appointed and some miscellaneous matters had received attention, the Association adjourned to meet at the same place, at nine o'clock, Thursday morning.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Morning Session.

The organ voluntary was rendered by Mr. Louis Hoyt, of Chicago.

Prof. Blackman, of Chicago, with a large chorus of children, opened the session with songs.

Rev. George W. Price, of Tennessee, offered prayer; after which there was further singing by Prof. Blackman's chorus.

Communications touching instruction in civics were received from John A. Logan Post 540, G. A. R., and others, and were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

E. E. White, of Ohio, moved that the word *Director* be substituted for the word "Councillor" in the first sentence of Section I., Article IV. of the Constitution; and that the word *Director* be substituted for the word "Councillor" in Section II., Article IV.

The motion was unanimously carried.

As chairman of the nominating committee, Mr. White then offered the report of the committee, as follows:

CHICAGO, July 14, 1887.

To the Officers and Members of the National Educational Association:—

Your Committee on the nomination of officers of the National Educational Association for the year 1887–8, submit the following report:—

For President, Aaron Gove of Colorado.

For Secretary, James H. Canfield of Kansas.

For Treasurer, Edwin C. Hewett of Illinois.

For Vice-Presidents, William E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, J. W. Holcombe of District of Columbia, Warren Easton of Louisiana, Solemn Palmer of Alabama, Thomas J. Morgan of Rhode Island, Rose C. Swartz of Wisconsin, W. R. Garrett of Tennessee, T. A. Futrall of Arkansas, Fred M. Campbell of California, Irwin Shepard of Minnesota, J. T. Buchannan of Missouri, A. R. Sabin of Illinois.

For Directors, T. J. Mitchell of Alabama, Josiah H. Shinn of Arkansas, Ira G. Hoitt of California, James H. Baker of Colorado, D. N. Camp of Connecticut, W. R. Thigpen of Georgia, A. G. Lane of Illinois, W. A. Bell of Indiana, R. G. Saunderson of Iowa, J. M. Wilkinson of Kansas, W. H. Bartholomew of Kentucky, Henry Chambers of Louisiana, J. H. Hansom of Maine, Henry A. Wise of Maryland, W. A. Mowry of Massachusetts, J. M. B. Sill of Michigan, S. S. Taylor of Minnesota, M. A. Montgomery of Mississippi, S. S. Laws of Missouri, George L. Farnham of Nebraska, T. B. McDonald of Nevada, C. C. Rounds of New Hampshire, Robert Bingham of North Carolina, Joseph Clark of New Jersey, Jerome Allen of New York, C. C. Davidson of Ohio, E. O. Lyte of Pennsylvania, H. S. Tarbell of Rhode Island, M. Ford of South Carolina, Wharton S. Jones of Tennessee, Percy B. Pennybaker of Texas, S. B. Brown of West Virginia, J. L. Buchannan of Virginia, T. C. Chamberlain of Wisconsin, Zalmon Richards of District of Columbia, Charles H. Strauss of Arizona, Charles L. Howard, of Montana W. M. Stewart of Utah, J. O. Churchill of Wyoming, George A. McFarland of Dakota.

All of which is respectfully submitted by the Committee.

Mr. Hinsdale, of Ohio, moved that the Secretary be authorized to cast the ballot of the Association for the officers named. Carried.

The secretary reported that he had cast the ballot as directed by the motion.

The Chair then announced that the nominees are elected as officers of the Association for 1887–8.

Mr. Stevenson, of Ohio, submitted a preliminary report of the Committee on Necrology, which was accepted and approved; and the full report was ordered to be printed in the volume of Proceedings for the current year.

The Secretary read an invitation from the Legislature of California, and other public bodies, to the Association, to select the Pacific Coast as the place for the next annual meeting. Referred to the new administration.

The regular programme for the morning was then taken up, as follows:

Theme: "The Relation of the University, College, and Higher Technological Schools to the Public System of Education."

Papers were read by James B. Angell, of Michigan, J. W. Strong, of Minnesota, and Isaac I. Hopkins, of Georgia.

A short intermission was taken.

The discussion of the theme was continued in a paper by T. H. McBride, of Iowa.

A general discussion followed, in which the following speakers participated: Messrs. Chamberlain of Wisconsin, Noble of Chicago, Mayo of Massachusetts, Hoose of New York, Price of Tennessee, Blanchard of Illinois, Tappan of Ohio, Andrews of Ohio, Campbell of California, Winship and Hagar of Massachusetts, Miss Cooper of New York, Mrs. Williams of Ohio, and several others; closed by President Angell of Michigan.

The Association then adjourned to meet in the same place, at eight o'clock P.M.

Evening Session.

The session opened with an organ voluntary by Mr. Louis Hoyt, of Chicago.

The Association was called to order, at eight o'clock, by the President, and prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Marquis, of Chicago.

The minutes of all previous meetings were read and approved.

Mr. Baker, of Colorado, read the report of the Committee on Teaching Physics in the public schools, and presented the resolutions pertaining thereto.

Mr. Brown, of Illinois, moved their adoption, which motion prevailed.

The President stated that a new committee, appointed to carry out the suggestions of the report, would be announced in the morning.

The absence of Mr. Vincent was explained, and promise given that he would be present at the meeting on Friday evening.

The theme of the evening was then taken up, as follows: "The Means and the Ends of Culture to be provided for the American People beyond the Ordinary School Period."

Papers were read, as follows: On "Evening Schools," by Albert P. Marble, of Massachusetts; on "Public Libraries," by Thomas J. Morgan, of Rhode Island; on "How to spread Information regarding True Methods and Purposes of Education," by Henry Sabin, of Iowa.

The usual announcements were made, including the reading of the resolutions passed in the new board of directors during the afternoon, designating San Francisco, California, conditionally, as the next place of meeting.

The Association then adjourned to meet at the same place, at nine o'clock, Friday morning.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Morning Session.

The session was opened with an organ voluntary by Mr. George Emerson, of Chicago.

Prayer was offered by Bishop Samuel Fallows, of the Reformed Episcopal Church, of Chicago.

Mr. Baker, of Colorado, moved that a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to take action on the report of the Committee on Instruction in Physics in the common schools. Carried.

The Chair appointed the following as such committee: James H. Baker, of Denver, Leroy C. Cooley, of Vassar College, W. C. Stevens, of Brooklyn College and Polytechnic Institute, W. F. Bradbury, Principal of Cambridge (Mass.) High School, John M. Ordway, Tulane University, Ga.

Mr. Morgan, as chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, presented the report of the committee, which was adopted.

Mr. Winship thought an additional resolution, thanking the press, should be incorporated.

Mr. Richards gave notice that at the next meeting he should ask for a change in the Constitution, by which members of the Board of Trustees shall be *ex officio* members of the Board of Directors.

Mr. Mayo moved that a committee of three be appointed by the Chair to communicate with the appropriate committees in Congress concerning the resolution of this convention on the subject of national aid to education. Carried.

The Chair appointed A. D. Mayo, John Eaton, and William Preston Johnson, as such committee.

A vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Loomis and the ushers.

The theme of the morning was then taken up: "The Place Manual Training should occupy in a System of Public Schools."

Papers were presented by Francis A. Walker, of Massachusetts, on "Manual Training in Urban Communities and in Large Towns;" by Miss L. A. Fay, of Massachusetts, on "Kinds of Schools to be Introduced and Practical Methods of Instruction;" and by C. W. Woodward, of Missouri, in opening the general discussion.

The discussion was participated in by Messrs. Miner, of Massachusetts, Ordway, of Louisiana, Allison, of Nova Scotia, Ham, of Illinois, Soldan, of Missouri, Peabody and De Garmo, of Illinois, Mrs. Rickoff, of New York, and others; President Walker closing.

The Association then adjourned to meet in the same place, at eight o'clock P.M.

Evening Session.

The session was opened with an organ voluntary by Mr. S. B. Sabin, of Chicago.

Prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr. Noble, of Chicago.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The President of the Council of Education presented the usual report to the Association, which was received and ordered printed.

The theme of the evening was then taken up, as follows: "What can be Done by Educators to Enlighten and Arouse the People, and Excite Public Sentiment in favor of Education?"

Papers were read as follows: "How to help People to Discriminate Clearly between Good and Bad Teaching," by Mrs. Ella F. Young, of Chicago; "How to Awaken an Interest and Create a Demand for Professionally Trained and Good Teachers and for Such Only," by W. W. Parsons, of Indiana; and Dr. Vincent, of Chautauqua, spoke on "Reading Circles and Home Study."

The President then spoke a few words, reviewing the work of the sessions, and expressing his own obligation and the gratitude of the Association to those who had taken part on the programme, and appointed Messrs. Hagar and Eaton a committee to conduct President-elect Gove, to the platform; which being done, President Sheldon briefly introduced him to the audience. On assuming the duties of the office, President Gove made a short address, and asked A. R. Sabin, of Chicago, to lead in singing the Doxology; and in conclusion, Dr. Noble, of Chicago, pronounced a benediction, and the Association adjourned *sine die.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1887.

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

The Board met in the rooms of the Board of Education, City Hall Building, Chicago, Ill., July 12th, and was called to order at four o'clock, President Sheldon in the chair. The members present were Messrs. Calkins, Canfield, Dougherty, Gove, Hailmann, Laws, Purinton, Parker, Richards, Rickoff, Sabin, White, and Young.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The report of the Board of Trustees was presented by Mr. Calkins. It was moved that the report be received and published in the volume of Proceedings for 1887. Carried.

It was moved to authorize the present President and Secretary to approve bills incurred in connection with the meeting of 1887. Carried.

Gen. John Eaton was then elected his own successor as a trustee.

It was moved that authority be given the trustees to transfer from the surplus fund to the permanent fund such a sum as may be found practicable. Carried.

It was moved that a committee of three be appointed to nominate to this board five members of the Council. Carried.

The Chair appointed Messrs. White, Rounds, and Rickoff.

The following bills were then presented, approved, and ordered paid, as being necessary expenses connected with this meeting:

Expenses incurred by President Sheldon	$561 45
Expenses incurred by the Secretary	25 75
Expenses incurred by Superintendent of Transportation .	292 15
Printing certificates of membership, for Treasurer . .	31 00
Circulars, postage, etc., E. L. K. & Co.	9 75
Meeting of Dept. of Superintendence at Washington . .	47 75

It was moved that a committee of three, of which the chairman of the Board shall be an *ex officio* member, be appointed to make a suitable testimonial to W. D. Parker, the railway secretary. Carried.

The Chair named Messrs. Richards and Gove as members of that committee.*

In the absence of Mr. Hewett, Mr. Calkins presented the Treasurer's report, with the vouchers.

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* The following from the Chicago *Times* of July 16th, shows the action of the committee. "Before the last meeting of the Association, President Sheldon and other officers of the Association called on the railway secretary, Mr. W. D. Parker, of River Falls [Wis.] Normal School, and on behalf of the Association presented him with a very handsome gold watch. Mr. Parker expressed his appreciation of the gift in a happy little speech."

It was moved that it be approved and published in the volume of Proceedings. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Rickoff that the Board of Trustees of the Association be requested to appoint a custodian of the printed reports of the Association and National Council of Education; and that, for the information of all interested parties, the Board be requested to make due announcement of such appointment in the volume of Proceedings for 1887, and in all succeeding volumes. Carried.

The Committee on Nomination of New Members of the Council reported the names of Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts; Frank A. Fitzpatrick, of Kansas; W. A. Barringer, of New Jersey; E. E. Higbee, of Pennsylvania; and J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri. These gentlemen to be their own successors for the term of six years, ending 1893.

It was moved that the report be adopted, and the gentlemen declared elected.

Mr. Laws spoke briefly on the motion, deprecating the apparent fact that the Council was a close corporation, and self-perpetuating, and that it lacked breadth and national character.

The President replied briefly to the last part of the gentleman's remarks.

Mr. Sabin spoke against the report as a "breeding-in-and-in," and as narrowing.

Mr. Gove deprecated the remarks which had been made against the report.

Mr. White defended the Board and the Council against the charges which had been made.

Mr. Sabin said that Mr. White's remarks had thrown a flood of light on the whole subject, and that he would withdraw his opposition to the motion.

Mr. White gave notice that he should ask for a change in the Constitution, substituting the word *Director* for "Councillor."

The report of the committee was then adopted.

The Board then adjourned to meet at the call of the President.

JAMES H. CANFIELD,
Secretary.

NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

The new Board of Directors was called to order by President Gove, at five o'clock, July 14th, in the rooms of the Board of Education, City Hall, Chicago.

The following responded at roll call: Messrs. Allen, Bartlett, Brown,

L. D. Buchannan, John L. Buchannan, J. T. Campbell, Camp, Canfield, Chamberlain, Churchill, Clark, Davidson, Farnham, Futrall, Garrett, Gove, Greenwood, Hagar, Hansom, Hinsdale, Hoitt, Howard, Lyte, Marshall, McDonald, McFarland, Montgomery, Palmer, Parker, Parr, Pennybaker, Richards, Rickoff, Sabin, Sheldon, Stout, Strauss, Taylor, A. R. Taylor, S. S. Wilkinson.

A communication was read from Edward G. Howe, of Washington Heights, Ill., asking that private schools have representation on the next programme. Referred to the appropriate committee.

An official invitation from the Legislature of California was then read, asking the Association to meet in that State in 1888. Proposals from several railways to grant reduced rates to the Association, if the meeting be held in California, were presented.

Mr. Allen, of New York, wished to know if these rates were to include the Eastern States, and spoke of the discrimination against members from New York, as shown this year.

Mr. Richards, of Washington, presented an invitation from Cincinnati.

Mr. Sheldon presented invitations from Saratoga, Chautauqua, and Newport.

Mr. Hoitt, of California, spoke of possible steamer connections between New York and the Southern Pacific Railway.

Mr. Buchannan, of Missouri, moved that the time and place of the meeting for 1888 be left to a committee consisting of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, the first and second Vice-Presidents,—Messrs. Sheldon and Holcombe.

Mr. Allen moved that the place of meeting be San Francisco, provided half-rates or lower can be secured from all principal points in the United States.

Mr. Hoitt spoke of the probable rates at hotels.

Mr. Campbell, of California, said that from six to nine thousand accommodations could easily be secured.

Mr. Allen again urged that members from New York should have consideration and fair treatment.

Mr. Sheldon spoke in favor of leaving all details in the hands of the Executive Committee.

Mr. Allen thought the Executive Committee of the present year might have protected the members from New York. And spoke in defense of Mr. Pierson, Trunk-Lines commissioner.

Mr. Hinsdale, of Ohio, urged the adoption of Mr. Sheldon's suggestion, and favored meeting in San Francisco.

Mr. Hoitt spoke again in favor of a Pacific-Slope meeting.

Mr. Rickoff, of New York, moved that the communications from the Legislature of the State of California, and from the several railroad companies that have made propositions for half-fare rates, together with Mr. Allen's resolution, be received and referred to a committee of five, consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and Vice-Presidents Sheldon and Holcombe; with power to determine the time and place of the next annual meeting of this Association; with instructions that they select the city of San Francisco, provided that satisfactory arrangements can be made therefor.

Mr. Strauss, of Arizona, asked if this would give the committee any power to designate any other place in case of failure to make arrangements with San Francisco.

Mr. Sheldon thought the committee would have power to meet such an emergency.

Messrs. Campbell, Hoitt, Young, and Strauss again spoke in favor of the motion of Mr. Rickoff.

The motion was then unanimously passed.

The Secretary then stated that his first impulse was to decline re-election, on the ground of very pressing duties as one of the faculty of Kansas State University; but that at the request of others he would continue to act until he had time to fairly look over his work for the coming year. In the mean time he asked the Board to elect an assistant secretary, to take his place in case his own resignation should become imperative.

Mr. Campbell moved that, instead of allowing any question of resignation to come up, the Secretary be authorized to employ any reasonable assistance that he might need during the coming year. Carried.

Mr. Taylor, of Kansas, introduced a motion calling for a public statement concerning the delays and embarrassments in the local railroad arrangements of the present session; but on explanation from Mr. Sheldon the motion was withdrawn.

The Board then adjourned, subject to the call of the President.

James H. Canfield,
Secretary.

SPECIAL REPORTS,

RESOLUTIONS,

AND

COMMUNICATIONS.

SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S REPORT

DR. EDWIN C. HEWETT, IN ACCOUNT WITH

Balance from account for 1886, ...		$1 13
Received from 4 Life Directors, ...	$400 00	
" " 31 Life Members, ...	620 00	
" " 1198 Annual Members, . . .	2,396 00	
" " Interest on Permanent Fund, . . .	204 00	
" " Volumes sold, ...	45 00	
		3,665 00
		$3,666 13

The Board of Trustees, having examined this report of Edwin C. Hewett, Treasurer, compared the several items with the vouchers therefor, and found them correct, hereby certify their approval of the same.

N. A. CALKINS, *Chairman.*
Z. RICHARDS, *Secretary.*

July 19, 1887.

FROM JULY 1, 1886, TO JULY 1, 1887.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION. CR.

By Expenses of Special Committee on Place of Meeting for 1886,	$17 76	
Printing Letter Heads, Envelopes, Circulars, . .	25 75	
Engraving and Printing Life-Member Certificates, .	25 00	
Expenses of Incorporation of N. E. A., . . .	3 75	
Printing Programmes of Meeting at Topeka, . .	56 50	
Stenographer for Topeka Meeting, ...	100 00	
Printing Certificates of Annual Members, Letter Heads,	30 50	
Printing Amended Constitution, ...	15 60	
Cartage and freight on Vols. of 1884, ...	4 94	
Printing Labels for Vols. of 1886, ...	4 50	
Transportation of Vols. of 1884 from Boston to Washington,	16 65	
Printing and Binding 2000 Vols. of 1886, . .	1,206 13	
Distribution of Vols. of 1886 to Members, . .	256 59	
		$1,763 67
Expenses at Topeka, ...		30 50
Printing Circulars and Distribution of same in several States,		49 02
Expenses of Departments, ...		70 43
" " Board of Trustees, ...		45 90
" " President, for Stenographer, Postage, and Telegrams,		133 71
Expenses of Secretary, in publishing Vol. of Proceedings for 1886, ...	$100 68	
Expenses of Secretary, for Stenographer, Telegrams, Express, Stationery, and Travelling, ...	182 47	
		283 15
Expenses of Treasurer, ...		80 75
Transfer of four Life-Directorships to Permanent Fund,	400 00	
Transfer from surplus to Permanent Fund, . .	100 00	
One Life-Membership (A. R. Taylor) credited on account of Life-Director, ...	20 00	
		520 00
Amount transferred to Permanent Fund, . . .		675 00
Balance in Treasury, July 1, 1887, . . .		14 00
		$3,666 13

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:—

In presenting to you the first annual report of the Board of Trustees. we deem it appropriate to state a few facts relating to our general plans for carrying out the provisions of the Constitution, under the corporate powers conferred on this Board by the Certificate of Incorporation.

In addition to the investments and care of the permanent funds of the Association, the Constitution provides that it shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to *issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved* by your body, as a Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association, acting under the authority conferred by a vote of the Board of Directors. It is understood that the President and Secretary, thus authorized, have power to approve bills pertaining to their own administration until the first day of July of the succeeding year.

To require the Board of Trustees to meet, and direct the issue of orders for the payment of all bills would be impracticable. In order to meet the requirements of the Constitution, and avoid delay in the payment of approved bills, the Board of Trustees adopted the following resolution :—

> ***Resolved***, **That the Chairman of the Board of Trustees is hereby declared to be the executive officer of the Board, and he is duly empowered to act for and in behalf of said Board in the transaction of its ordinary business, essential to be conducted during the intervals between the meetings of the Trustees.**

It is also proposed that the foregoing resolution be made the standing rule of this Board, until further action appears to be desirable. The following statement will indicate the application of this rule to the payment of bills incurred on account of the Association.

Whenever duly approved bills are sent to the Chairman of the Board, it becomes his duty to issue orders on the Treasurer for their payment. For doing this the Chairman is provided with a book of orders, with the orders and stubs duly numbered; and on the stub is recorded the *amount* of the order, *to whom* it is payable, *for what purpose* it is drawn, and *by whom the bill was approved*. The approved bill is the authority for issuing the order; the order gives the Treasurer authority to pay the bill.

For several years it has been the practice of those having the care of the finances of the Association to use the receipts for the year in payment of the expenses of that year; and, whenever a sufficient balance remained in the treasury, after paying all bills for the year, such portion of the surplus, as was deemed practicable, has been transferred to the permanent fund.

Prior to 1884, the permanent fund consisted only of receipts for life-directorships, and *the amount of the fund was but two hundred dollars.*

During the years 1881 and 1882, the treasury was in debt to the President and Secretary of the Association. That indebtedness was entirely paid during the year 1883. From the surplus in the treasury, after paying all bills for the meeting of 1884, the sum of *three thousand dollars* was transferred to the permanent fund.

In 1885, the sum of *one hundred dollars*, received for a life-directorship, was added to the permanent fund.

In 1886. the sum of *four hundred dollars* was received for four life-directorships, and added to the permanent fund. And in addition to this there has been transferred from the surplus funds remaining in the hands of the Treasurer after paying all expenses of the Association for 1886, the sum of *seven hundred and seventy-five dollars;* thus making the total addition to the permanent fund for the year 1886, the sum of *eleven hundred and seventy-five dollars.*

The entire amount of the permanent fund, now, is *four thousand four hundred and seventy-five dollars.*

The following statement will show the present condition of this fund: *Three hundred dollars* is loaned in Gambier, O., secured by a first mortgage on improved property, buildings insured, and pays eight per cent. interest. *Three thousand dollars* is loaned in the city of Providence, R. I., secured by a first mortgage on real estate, buildings insured, and pays six per cent. interest. *Five hundred dollars* is invested in a Kansas school bond, which would sell at a premium, and pays six per cent. interest. *The six hundred and seventy-five dollars*, just transferred to the permanent fund, will be duly invested at the earliest favorable opportunity.

In conclusion we would add that it is earnestly hoped that from the surplus of the present year the Board of Trustees may be able to transfer to the permanent fund a larger sum than has been added to it during any previous year.

N. A. CALKINS,
Z. RICHARDS,
H. S. TARBELL,
JOHN EATON,
Board of Trustees, N. E. A.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 12, 1887.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL.

To the National Educational Association:—

In compliance with the Constitution of the National Council of Education, the following report of the proceedings of the Council at its recent session is respectfully presented.

Of the sixty members that constitute the Council, forty-four were in attendance, being a considerably larger number than were present at any former meeting.

Reports were presented as follows:—

Dr. F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, in behalf of the Committee on Pedagogics, reported upon "The Functions of the Public School."

Principal E. W. Coy, of Cincinnati, in behalf of the Committee on Secondary Education, reported upon "The Relation of High Schools to Colleges."

Dr. E. C. Hewett, of Normal, Ill., in behalf of the Committee on Normal Schools, reported upon "Teachers' Institutes."

Dr. W. N. Hailmann, of La Porte, Ind., in behalf of the Committee on Hygiene in Education, reported upon "The Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health."

State Superintendent E. E. Higbee, of Pennsylvania, in behalf of the Committee on State School Systems, reported upon "The Teacher's Tenure of Office."

Supt. J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo., in behalf of the Committee on Educational Literature, reported upon "What Teachers Should Read."

President John Eaton, of Marietta College, O., in behalf of the Committee on Educational Statistics, reported upon "Points for Constant Consideration in the Statistics of Education."

All of these reports had been carefully prepared, and they embodied a large amount of valuable thought and useful suggestion. The discussions thereon were animated, interesting, and profitable. Each report, with the discussion following, occupied an entire session of the Council.

The growing interest in the work of the Council, the opportunities which it furnishes for the elaborate and thorough consideration and discussion of important educational topics, and the manifest success which has thus far attended its labors, seem fully to justify its continued existence as a Department of the National Educational Association.

Submitted in behalf of the National Council of Education,

DANIEL B. HAGAR, *President.*

CHICAGO, ILL., July 15, 1887.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PHYSICS-TEACHING.

To the National Educational Association:—

Your Committee on Physics-Teaching was appointed in 1885 "to consider, without disparagement of other studies, linguistic or scientific, how Physics-Teaching in our schools may be improved and made more uniform throughout the country." In pursuance of these instructions we have attempted by conference and correspondence first of all to express in brief form certain general principles in the light of which details of the work might be considered. These general principles we have agreed to with gratifying unanimity, and shall submit them to you and ask a formal vote on them; for, although there is nothing new in them, being only the summary of the world's experience, they need to be impressed on thousands of teachers still perplexed over these questions; and no individual or committee has the influence or authority over these teachers that this Association should have and should exert.

But before submitting the resolutions we desire to say a few words to explain our views on some points, and to prevent misapprehension on others. And first, notice that this report has only to do with public schools as commonly organized in our cities and larger villages; second, we shall not enter into details of the work however important and tempting they may be, as these should be left till the principles have been recognized and agreed upon.

The point on which there is probably most need of explanation is that relating to the work in physics in the lower schools—in the primary and grammar grades, with children between the ages of seven and fifteen years. Since the study has not generally been introduced in these grades in this country, comparatively few teachers can speak from experience on the subject. But we believe sound educational theory and experience alike justify its introduction here, for the benefits to be derived both by those who may take it later in their course, and by those who will have no later opportunities. We find support for this view both in the precepts and practice of educational authorities in France and Germany, and of some in our own country also. The chief difficulty at present in the way of introducing this study is the unpreparedness of teachers, for the work which has not hitherto been asked of them. If one is now suddenly asked to take it up she finds little detailed help in print of the kind she wants; and so is in great danger of making the work consist in the study of and recitation from a text-book, or else she will give simple lectures to her pupils. But we are not urging the introduction of such physics-teaching. Nor are we depreciating either the interest or importance of physical *facts*, when we insist that both these methods are radically wrong, and that all the permanent good that might come from them will be gained and much beside by following a better method. We hold that with all beginners in physics (including students in the high school for part of their course) the aim of the teacher should be, not so much to increase directly the pupil's fund of information, as to draw out what he has already acquired, and help him to re-arrange and classify it; then the judicious presentation of a few new facts (usually by experiment) may bring to light the common principle. Thus the pupil's reasoning powers are trained; and the facts, new and old, will be more useful to him in after life because of his classification of them. The facts familiar to the boy, that he can bring to the class-room, will vary much according to his home life, his sports and the occupations of the community in which he lives; so the details of the work on any topic will be endlessly varied in different classes. But the method, without the use of a text-book, may everywhere be the same.

The class-work starts with an experiment, a reference to a familiar fact, a question to the child; then the process of analogical reasoning begins; illustrations or experiments are multiplied; until ultimately some common idea is recognized in all the phenomena cited. This idea or principle—it may be the buoyancy of liquids, expansion by heat, refraction of light, or any one of scores of simple principles that are suitable for these grades—is then to be clearly stated, shown to apply to the cases cited, be illustrated by further experiments and perhaps by predictions, and occasionally may be the subject of easy numerical problems. The question of home-work will quickly settle itself, when the teacher is planning for a class whose needs she knows.

Passing to the work in high schools, we need not urge the introduction of the study, or repeat what has been said about the inductive method: by all means this should be followed here; so the work will be mainly of the same character as before, but will naturally cover more ground, and reasoning powers of a higher order will be called into exercise. Not merely are phenomena to be grouped by analogy, but more attention is to be given to discovering principles and laws capable of numerical expression, and to making deductions from them.

But let us say here that we do not carry our views concerning the scientific method to the absurd extreme of trying to limit the student's knowledge to what he can learn in the way above described: before the close of the work in the grammar school he should have some references to look up in books, and in the high school he can profitably use a text-book during a considerable part of the course.

The question of how much ground the course in the high school shall cover can be answered only when all the circumstances are known; but we believe that it would tend to improve the teaching of physics, and would promote a helpful degree of uniformity, if all teachers of this

ch of science would unite on a list of subjects that should be regard-
s fundamental—never to be omitted from a high school course, how-
many others may be added to them—and always to be taught by
riment. Such a list we give below: it will serve at least to indicate
lass of subjects which we think should be included in the high-school
e, and, we hope, will lead to examination and discussion, and later
e adoption of some similar list.

F LIST OF FUNDAMENTAL TOPICS IN PHYSICS TO BE ILLUSTRATED BY EXPERIMENT.

MECHANICS.

res of length, volume, and mass.
t.
sition of forces.
l forces.
of gravity.
machines.
um.
ugal action.
cy of liquids.
and specific gravity.
rity.
heric pressure. Barometer.
ty of gases.
np.
umps—siphon.

HEAT.

on of liquids and gases.
expansion of solids.
meter (verify fixed points).
ion.
ture of mixtures of water.
heat of a solid.
eat of ice. steam, vapors.
m friction.

MAGNETISM AND ELECTRICITY.

Properties of permanent and temporary magnets.
Magnetic curves.
Simple galvanic cell.
Useful forms of galvanic cells.
Effect of current on magnetic needle.
Electro-magnets.
Influence of resistance of conductor.
Chemical effects of current.
Heating effect of current.
Induction.
Telegraph and telephone.
Frictional electricity; two states.
Electrical machine, Leyden jar.

SOUND.

Vibration and production of waves.
Resonance.
Interference (fork and jar).
Sonometer.

LIGHT.

Photometer.
Reflection; plane and curved mirrors.
Refraction.
Dispersion and spectrum.
Total reflection.
Lenses; construction of images.
Combination of colors.

dvantage of some uniform list of topics is apparent when we con-
e question of a Requirement in Physics for admission to college.
vs on this question are embodied in one of the resolutions to be
d directly, and we only add here one suggestion, namely: if the
ent at any college is to be no more than three months' work, it
etter for the schools and the students to limit their study to the
f mechanics (including liquids and gases as well as solids) and to
the subject of heat, rather than to try and cover the whole field
es in this short time.

, we desire to refer teachers seeking detailed advice to the helpful
ourse in Science introduced by Dr. W. T. Harris, while super-

intendent of the St. Louis Public Schools, and published at length in the Report for 1871, and since reprinted in several forms.

Accompanying this report we present four resolutions to which we have agreed, and on which we ask your formal expression of opinion. The adoption of them will be a long step toward the attainment of those ends which the Committee was appointed to promote.

Respectfully submitted,

CHARLES K. WEAD.

LEROY C. COOLEY,
Vassar College.

W. LEC. STEVENS,
Packer College Institute, Brooklyn.

W. F. BRADBURY,
Head-Master Latin School, Cambridge, Mass.

JAMES H. BAKER,
Principal of Denver High School, Denver, Col.

June, 1887.

While I agree in general with the report, I should like to add that the year's course in the high school should not begin until after the end of at least one year of the high-school course. W. F. BRADBURY.

Endorsed:—JAMES H. BAKER.

[Probably all the committee would agree in this.—C. K. W.].

RESOLUTIONS PRESENTED BY THE COMMITTEE ON PHYSICS-TEACHING.

Resolved by the National Educational Association:—

1. While the facts of physics are of the highest interest and importance, we consider that the primary reason for the introduction of this study into our schools is the peculiar mental training it can give; for the trained mind is better able to acquire and to use facts than one that is untrained.

2. Recognizing the advantages of a graded course in science to include the elements of several of the sciences, we believe that the ideal course of study in physics, toward which we should strive as rapidly as teachers are prepared for the work, includes in the primary school about one hour a week for a year, in the grammar school one to two hours, and in the high school five hours a week for a year.

3. We hold that the best results will be obtained if in all these grades the teaching is inductive in spirit rather than dogmatic. Little time should be spent, especially in the earlier parts of the course, on facts, principles, or deductions that cannot be made thoroughly clear by observation or experiment. In the grammar school especial attention should be given to the study of common instruments, and to industrial applications of physical principles.

4. We believe that some study of physics should be required for admission to college, both for the sake of the student and to improve the character of the work in both the colleges and the secondary schools. We request that colleges announce this requirement as soon as convenient, to take effect in the summer of 1891.

RESOLUTIONS ON NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

Resolved, That this, the largest and most important convention of the teachers of the United States ever held in the cause of the education of the American people, reaffirms, with emphasis, its oft repeated declaration, that it is the duty of Congress to come to the aid of the people of the Southern States of the Union, in their present heroic effort to overcome the illiteracy, which is now the great misfortune of this section, and, if neglected, will speedily become the peril and shame of the whole republic.

Resolved, That the Blair bill, twice passed, after long and deliberate discussion, by the Senate of the United States, is regarded by this convention a fit measure to accomplish this end; and Congress is urged to speedily enact, and the President of the United States to approve it; that it may become a law of the land.

Resolved, That a committee of three persons be appointed by the President of this convention, which shall present this resolution to the appropriate committees of Congress; with the reasons for the repeated declarations of its faith in national aid to education in the South, as a recognition of the coming era of national prosperity, unity, and perpetual peace.

COMMUNICATION FROM GEN. JOHN A. LOGAN POST, NO. 540, G. A. R., DEPARTMENT OF ILLINOIS.

EVANSTON, ILL., July 7, 1887.

The General John A. Logan Post, No. 540, Department of Illinois, Grand Army of the Republic, to the teachers of the land, assembled in convention in Chicago, sends hearty greeting. We salute you as the officers of the grand army of American children, and invite your Association to consider, and if your judgment approves, to pass the following resolution:

Resolved, That, as the public school is established chiefly in the interest of national preservation and prosperity, its teachers should, in all their teaching, emphasize and magnify whatever tends to make our youth appreciate the privileges and intelligently discharge the duties of American citizenship; that the history of the nation and the principles of civil government and of law should be taught in all public schools, and that loyalty, patriotism, and obedience to constituted law should be diligently impressed upon the minds of all our children.

W. H. LANGTON, *Commander*.

THOS. J. NOYES, *Adjutant*.

COMMUNICATION FROM MASS. SOCIETY P. C. A.

BOSTON, July 2, 1887.

WILLIAM E. SHELDON, President of the National Educational Association of the United States.

My Dear Mr. Sheldon :—The Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, as you know, has two objects.

1st. The protection of dumb animals in our own State, and the humane education of the children in all our public schools and elsewhere, for the prevention of every form of cruelty, *both to human beings and dumb beasts.*

2nd. The propagation of similar work all over this country, and, so far as possible, throughout the world.

For this last object there has been contributed and placed at my disposal a special fund, which enabled me last year to send many thousands of our humane publications to be distributed at your great national convention at Topeka, Kansas. Thanks to your interest and that of other good friends, they were most kindly received and have materially increased the branches of our "Parent Band of Mercy" over this country, which now number *nearly five thousand seven hundred Bands, with about four hundred thousand members.* I have now the great pleasure, in behalf of our Society, of presenting to your convention of this year, at Chicago—which I understand is likely to be the largest convention of teachers ever held in the world—one hundred and ten thousand copies of our humane publications. And with the earnest hope that they may go far to promote in this country not only the protection of dumb animals, but also peace on earth and good will to men, I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully,

GEO. T. ANGELL,

President of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and of the Parent American Band of Mercy.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

General Thomas J. Morgan, of Rhode Island, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, presented the following report :—

WHEREAS, we regard the education of the youth of our land as a matter of supreme importance, affecting as it does the stability and prosperity of the republic, the peace of society, and the dignity and happiness of the individual citizens therefore resolved :—

I. That we recognize the increased public interest in the cause of education, the development of a higher professional spirit among teachers, and the multiplication of agencies, such as chairs of pedagogy, normal schools, pedagogical literature, summer schools, reading circles, etc., designed to facilitate the professional equipment of teachers for their work; and we point with pride to the evident progress in the work of our public schools as shown in the character of the educational exhibit so admirably planned and executed.

II. That the lines of growth along which our school system should develop may be outlined, as follows:

1. A more general study of the Philosophy of Education. 2. An extension of the strictly professional training in the Normal Schools. 3. A more complete divorcement of school offices from politics. 4. Greater care in the selection of school officers, superintendents, and teachers. 5. The extension, wherever practicable, into rural districts of expert school superintendence. 6. A more stable tenure of office. 7. The extension of the school year and the increase of teachers' wages in rural districts. 8. The adoption of some plan whereby meritorious teachers after long service may be honorably retired. 9. The passage of laws where necessary to secure attendance at the public school of all persons of school age who are deficient in the rudiments of an English education. 10. The increase of public libraries and the establishment of a closer relation between them and the schools. 11. The fostering of the kindergarten and the application of its spirit and methods in the lower primary grades. 12. The recognition of the value of industrial art. 13. A more earnest attention not only to instruction in the fundamental principles of morality, but also to a careful training of pupils in moral character. 14. Increased attention to instruction in civics as a special preparation for the duties of citizenship. 15. The value of musical instruction.

III. That we specially commend to Congress The National Bureau of Education as an agency of increasing value and worthy of more liberal support.

IV. That we reaffirm our conviction of the urgent necessity of temporary Federal aid in the education of the illiterate masses of the South.

V. That we express our profound interest in the education of the Indians; heartily commend the spirit of liberality shown by Congress in the matter, and call special attention to the important and encouraging results already achieved.

VI. That we recommend to the several State Legislatures the adoption of laws:

1. Requiring instruction to be given in all public schools in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the injurious effects upon the human system of alcohol and narcotics. 2. Laws suppressing the publication and sale of impure literature. 3. Laws forbidding the sale of tobacco to youth.

VII. That the thanks of this Association are due and are hereby tendered to

1. The retiring President, whose intelligence, devotion, and labor have organized and carried to a successful issue the largest and one of the most important educational conventions ever assembled on the continent. 2. To the various officers, especially the railroad secretary, who, in their several spheres, have aided in the grand work. 3. To the several local committees and teachers for their intelligent and hearty co-operation, especially for the reception concert. 4. To the citizens of Chicago for their cordial welcome and generous hospitality. 5. To the railroads and transportation companies for civilities, reduced fares, and special loyalty to the financial interests of the Association. 6. To the local press for daily reports of proceedings. 7. To all others who have contributed to the success of a meeting long to be remembered.

Respectfully submitted,

Thomas J. Morgan,
James H. Hoose,
A. E. Winship,
Clara Conway,
S. S. Laws.

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.

Your Committee on Necrology respectfully submits the following report:—

Almighty God in the plentitude of his mercy has, in the past year, spared the health and lives of the active members of this Association; but several eminent teachers have been lost by death to the cause of education.

Your Committee propose to cause to be prepared for the volume of the Proceedings of this meeting of the National Educational Association, if it be the wish of this distinguished body, brief biographical sketches of the following eminent teachers: Mark Hopkins, Roswell Hitchcock, Eben Stearns, Loren Andrews, Anson Smythe, M. F. Cowdery, and others, of whom your Committee may receive information, whose lives and services have impressed themselves upon the hearts of the members of this great body of teachers.*

R. W. STEVENSON, *Chairman.*

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* These sketches will be found at the end of the volume.

ADDRESSES, PAPERS,

—AND—

DISCUSSIONS

OF THE

National Educational Association

AND ITS

DEPARTMENTS.

1887.

OPENING SESSION AT CHICAGO, ILL.

PRESIDENT W. E. SHELDON of Massachusetts, in calling the Association to order said:—

Ladies and Gentlemen:—

There is in this world but one Chicago. There is in this world but one Theodore Thomas Orchestra. There is in this world but one city which could extend to the teachers of this country a musical greeting like that which has inspired our souls to-night. There is but one cause and body of men and women in the world that would warrant such a greeting, and that is the body of men and women who seek to educate, elevate and ennoble mankind, to round out and make glorious the powers of mind and heart that belong to glorious manhood, and to pure womanhood, and as a fitting supplement to this musical greeting that fills our hearts and runs through our whole being with delight, I have the privilege of introducing to you His Honor, Mayor Roche, of the city of Chicago.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

MAYOR ROCHE.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:—

I esteem it a great honor to express to the members of this Association the cordial good will with which they are welcomed by the citizens of Chicago.

You have assembled in the interest of education, as the guardians and promoters of the intellectual and moral development of the youth of our country. Your work is the highest and noblest that can engage the activities of the human mind. Great as have been the achievements in the past in educational work, the field of human knowledge has not all been explored, the best methods of instruction and training have not been fully realized, and there is much for the conscientious, faithful, earnest, and diligent student and educator to do. I feel that I am authorized by the people of this city to say that none can be more welcome than those who are engaged in educational pursuits. We appreciate the advantages of education in all its branches, and enjoy, with keen zest, association with wide-awake, intellectual, and intelligent people, such as are gathered here to-day.

We hope that you may be able to carry with you to your respective fields of labor new and more practical ideas, more rational methods, and better adaptations, gained from intercourse with us and others who may be present. We think we have a justifiable pride in our public schools. The early fathers of our State, realizing that the strength and healthy growth of our towns and cities, like that of a republic, depends upon freedom from the bondage of ignorance, set apart lands for school purposes, and the income from this source is of great benefit now.

You who have been trained by actual service in the school know what it is to guide the young so that they may become men and women, strong morally, mentally, and physically. The true office and object of teaching is to enable the pupils to attain the best use of their faculties, both of body and mind. As growth in real knowledge, and in true manhood and womanhood, comes not merely from cramming the memory with facts and theories, but by comparison, reflection, mental digestion, and manual exercise; he is the best educator, and that is the best educational system, whose central object is to draw out, in harmonious development, all the powers of the mind, and train in the best way the ear, the eye, and the hand for the practical uses of life. In this kind of education there has been marked progress within a few years; and colleges, universities, and the higher schools have begun to realize that this is a practical world, and that their business is quite as much with the life that *is*, as with the life that is *to be*. It has dawned upon teachers, and I hope it is the accepted faith of the members of this Association, that education is for the *people* —for the *many*, and not simply for the *few*—and the problem which I trust you are here to solve is, How shall we reach and lift up to a higher intellectual and moral plane the great mass of the people, and thus fit them to become better men and women, better neighbors and better citizens? How can we make the curriculum of studies best adapted to the wants of the great multitude whose theoretical education begins and ends with the common school? How can we best equip the rising generation with the knowledge, training, and efficiency essential to the successful discharge of the duties of every day life? The question of education is not a question of the "survival of the fittest." It is the problem of the best methods of training the whole race for the highest usefulness and happiness. I commend these suggestions to your earnest consideration;

and I commend you, teachers—members of the noblest profession on earth—to the warm hospitalities and hearty good will of the citizens of Chicago.

HON. ALLEN C. STORY, PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, CHICAGO.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association:—

It is my esteemed privilege on this occasion of the thirtieth annual meeting of educators from every State in the Union to extend to you on behalf of the Board of Education and the teachers in the public schools of Chicago a hearty and cordial welcome to our city. Not perfunctorily, or merely in deference to custom, but with a deep sense of the importance of your mission, and the influence which education exerts upon every interest in the country.

Ours is emphatically a government of the people, and every citizen, no matter how humble, not only has a voice in making the laws, but also a right to their protection. No community can properly protect its citizens in life, liberty, and property by just and adequate laws, unless its people are intelligent. Education, therefore, must be the chief reliance of the state, the foundation-stone of our national superstructure.

Ruskin has said that "we had better seek for a system which will develop honest men and women than one which deals cunningly with vagabonds. Let us reform our schools and we shall find little to reform in our prisons." That you concur in a portion at least of this sentiment is manifest by this convention.

As from time immemorial, the position of tutor or teacher to the prince, or ruler expectant, has been one of the highest honor and importance, so in this country, where all are sovereigns,—each boy a possible ruler,—it is of no less importance to the individual, the state, and the well being of society.

In former times the person of the prince was sacred, and as disobedience was certain, and punishment necessary to the maintenance of discipline, a whipping-boy or scapegoat was provided, who was chastised, and suffered in place of the royal pupil.

Compensation for this enforced atonement was made, either by the reigning sovereign, or the prince himself upon attaining power.

This theory has been carefully preserved, and in Chicago, at least, no prince—and all children are princes—is ever punished other than by exclusion from school. Instead of the companion pupil being the scapegoat however, this honor is sometimes conferred upon the teacher, while the compensative feature has been almost entirely lost to sight.

Whether we are doing as well for the coming generation as the teachers of the present did for us is a question that time alone can determine.

The virtue of every nation is measured by the intelligence of its people. The perpetuation of our own system of government depends upon the education of those who shall succeed to the present generation. What can be of greater importance, therefore, than the proper training of our children?

With the exception of drawing, very little is now taught that serves to give even an insight to the industrial pursuits of the country, in which so large a portion of our people must be engaged.

For the benefit of this large number, this important class, the curriculum of grammar-school work should be so modified that pupils may be given facilities for acquiring scientific knowledge, useful to them in the employment which each is to follow through life.

These children leave the school-room and are compelled to waste years that should be devoted to study in learning the practice, often without theory, of the trade or employment chosen for them, and the technical knowledge or manual dexterity, necessary to enable them to become "bread-winners." There should be in addition to our present course of study, a special or scientific course, in which all pupils, who from inclination or other circumstances prefer it, may receive instruction in the elements of simple mathematics, mechanical drawing, physics, chemistry, electricity, magnetism, and such other studies as will bear directly upon their future employment.

During the past year classes of high-school pupils in our city have received instruction in mechanical drawing, combined with wood-working with tools, with the most astonishing results, and at trifling expense. Samples of their work are here to-night on exhibition.

It is not contended that it is either necessary or proper to teach a trade at the expense of the State; but, rather, that, by combining industrial work with the teaching of the school, a better method of training the intellect is obtained, insuring greater efficiency in the workman and a saving of time to the pupil, both of which are of benefit to the State.

The tendency of such a special course would be to make our scholars either commercially or industrially a success, in that each will possess some scientific knowledge which can be utilized, as he passes out from school into the active world, in which thenceforth he is to be a factor.

Experience teaches that boys thus trained more readily comprehend the oral teaching of the schools, and have a better understanding of what they read. Those, also, who take the mechanical or manual course of study, are enabled to carry along the same studies of the course as those who do not, thus demonstrating that the exercise incident to manual education is a stimulant to intellectual development.

In France, since the war of 1870-71, this feature of school work has received marked attention, and added materially to the development and industrial resources of the people.

The British nation has also given attention to this feature of developing the resources of its laboring classes, by providing a course of practical instruction in the fundamental principles underlying the various mechanical industries of the country. And it is said that boys from twelve to fourteen years of age, in the "new board schools" of any of the large cities in England, will exhibit as much knowledge of the studies referred to as those of sixteen and seventeen, in the high schools, under the former course of study.

When it is remembered that the larger proportion of pupils in grammar schools get no other opportunity for an education, the importance of making their educational life as useful as possible must be apparent to all, and I think the working people of the country have a right to ask this of our school authorities.

It is the complaint of many employers that they cannot keep our American boys at their work, that they do not like manual labor. It should be the policy of our educators to change this. Our public school system should be so conducted as not to give the children of our working people the idea that labor is either low, uninteresting, or vulgar. We must give this rising generation an opportunity to become acquainted with the scientific principles underlying our mechanical employments, and thus imbue them with an interest in them, and an intelligence which will make their employment attractive.

That this can be done without materially increasing the expense, is believed; but if not, when the results are fully seen and appreciated by our people, the fullest authority in this direction will be granted.

It has been said by those competent to judge that the proficiency exhibited by our high-school class in wood-working during the past year is equal to three years' instruction by the ordinary apprentice system; and, after seeing the specimens of their work on exhibition here, I am prepared to concur in this view.

This demonstrates that, by giving more attention to scientific instruction and to the training of the hand and eye, our public schools may be made to do much toward meeting the present requirements of industry, while the healthy reaction upon the schools themselves will be beneficial, in giving to intellectual training a higher value in all classes of society.

If it can be impressed upon our people, young and old, that to be a successful carpenter, machinist, or moulder, is as honorable, requires as much skill, and can be made as profitable as to be a doctor, a lawyer, or clerk, the demand for apprenticeships in our best shops will be increased, and educated labor supersede the "rule of thumb," which now holds such despotic sway among our mechanics.

During the past two years our board of education has made a new departure in the direction of developing the physical in connection with the intellectual among the grammar-school pupils, and has met with marked success. Commencing with one school in the North, one in the South, and two in the West division of the city, under one teacher, with ten minutes' exercise in each room, twice a week, we have been fairly compelled to extend the instruction to every grammar school within the city, and increase the number of teachers from one to nine. Parents and pupils alike demand this reform in the interest of developing "a healthy mind in a sound body," while the marked improvement in the health and physical development of the children and increased interest in their other studies attest the wisdom of the change.

Without trespassing further upon your time, I will express a hope that your deliberations may result in much good to the cause of education and good government throughout the country.

HON. GEORGE HOWLAND, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO.

In behalf of our sixteen hundred teachers, it gives me great pleasure to join in welcoming you to our city, to our halls, our hotels, our homes, our hearts. We gladly take you all in.

The warm hand we extend to you, be it in long haul or short haul, will always give a strong haul.

We expect, in return, to receive a deeper wisdom from your papers; a brighter, clearer intelligence from your discussions; and from your presence, an inspiration.

And we trust you will all find yourselves so kindly cared for, that you will always recall with pleasure these few vacation days beside our restful river.

HON. A. G. LANE,* SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COOK COUNTY, ILL.

Members of the National Educational Association:—

Other great gatherings have been held in this hall: three or four national nominating conventions, in which representatives from every part of the land have gathered to express their choice for the presidency of the United States. In most of those gatherings, eloquent speakers and orators of the nation have proclaimed the wondrous achievements and marvellous powers of their respective candidates. There have been great expositions here. In 1882, was held the great railway exposition of the world, when all classes of railroad appliances and railroad material were gathered into this building, and the workmen, who had wrought so wondrously, gathered with their products. But before any of these material results came into existence, they were born in the minds of men who had toiled, who had thought, under the inspiration caught from the school-room, graduating from that to higher work. Ere these arches spanned this building some mind had measured every timber, had tested every rod, and had accurately determined their mighty power. Out from the schools of the nation have come the men who have conceived and constructed the grand edifices, the magnificent machinery, the wondrous highways that span the country.

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* Reported by a stenographer.

It is fitting that of three hundred and twenty thousand teachers of the nation there should be gathered these representatives, who shall speak in the name of twelve millions of children, who shall represent the more than a hundred and twenty millions of dollars annually expended. It is fitting that, in this hall, where so many great assemblies have convened, the teachers of the nation should speak through the public press, and through their fellow teachers all over the land, of that time which is coming, when it will be recognized that from the school-room comes the knowledge and light that are to quicken the nation in morality, and in honor, and guide it through worthy labor, to the truest, noblest, fullest manhood. Let the teachers of the nation speak in this great educational gathering to the millions of the nation, and through them to the nations of the world, telling them that through the wise training of the children we shall come to all that constitutes right living, we shall come to the highest civilization.

In this building is collected also the work of the children of this land. They come, Mr. President, to speak to you, and to these teachers, their welcome greeting. In these we find the generation that is to shape the marvellous future of this great country.

RESPONSE TO THE ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

BY THE PRESIDENT, W. E. SHELDON, OF BOSTON.

To your Honor the Mayor, to you the Chairman of the Board of Education, to you, sir, the veteran educator and Superintendent of public instruction of the city of Chicago, and to you the official Representative of public education of Cook county, which is so fortunate as to include in its fold this great city of the Northwest, I would tender in the name and on behalf of the National Educational Association our sincere and grateful acknowledgements for your eloquent words of greeting and welcome, and through you as their honored representatives, to the citizens of the State, county, and city in which we are gathered. We appreciate heartily the spirit of the generous and liberal hospitality that prompted you to invite the Association to gather here the present year. Some of us, older members of the Association, have pleasant memories of the welcome extended to this body twenty-four years ago, in August of 1863, at a time when the nation was in the midst of a gigantic struggle for its perpetuity. The sessions were held in Bryan Hall, and we remember the glowing words of welcome that fell from the lips of the late William H. Wells, then superintendent of the public schools of Chicago, and the fitting response of the lamented John D. Philbrick, the president of the Association for that year. He then spoke of this city as "the miracle of this continent;" and its phenomenally rapid growth, matchless enterprise, and marvellous development of material and intellectual activities since that date, excelling even ancient Carthage in its palmiest days, justifies us in pronouncing it the "miracles of miracles" of this century. There came from the East alone over six hundred persons to attend that meeting, the largest the Association had ever held until it came, in 1884, to Madison, Wis., under the presidency of another gallant leader from the old Bay State, where the attendance was much larger than in Chicago, in 1863. We are rejoiced to be here again, from all sections of a united prosperous, and happy nation of sixty millions of people. In 1863 we believed, as we do to-day, that education was the sure foundation of our free institutions and the very basis of our national and individual life and that the intelligence and virtue of our people would secure to us *victory for the right.* Our faith and hope inspired the efforts that achieved the grand triumph, and placed the United States in the front rank of the nations of the earth. I must not detain you further, except to say we hope that the conduct and proceedings of this Association, as represented in its general sessions and in the deliberations of its nine departments, will fully justify the pains taken and sacrifices made by the friends of popular education in Chicago and vicinity to promote the success of this meeting. We cordially invite you, gentlemen, and your fellow citizens, ladies and gentlemen, to attend our sessions and join in our deliberations, by which we seek to promote the highest educational interests of our whole land. Again thanking you for your inspiring words, we will proceed at once to the work indicated for us upon the regular programme.

THE PROBLEM OF TO-DAY.

HON. RICHARD EDWARDS, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, ILLINOIS.

I suppose that a careful reader of history cannot fail to be impressed with the fact that every race, and in some measure every generation of men, seems to have had a special task, seems to have performed, more or less effectively, some special function in the development of the world's civilization. Each seems to have proclaimed some new or hitherto forgotten truth, or to have established some useful institution among men. This is one of the most instructive and one of the most cheering testimonies in human annals. The idea of government, for example, was early developed. It was first administered by the patriarch in the family, afterwards in an aggregation of families. Then amid the strifes of contending households and their leaders, by the wisdom or brute force of some one mightier than the others, a tribe was established. Fired by ambition, some still mightier leader, arose and many tribes were consolidated into a nation, and at last there came forth the great empires of the antique world. Thus men were made familiar with the idea of government, of political institutions, of the union of millions into one consolidated state. But at first it seems to have been a union dependent upon the personal will and the personal prowess of the despot. The government was purely autocratic. Even in the administration of justice only the personal will of princes or their agents was regarded. Such an empire was Babylon. Such an emperor was Pharaoh. In these latter days their rule would be intolerable, but in their own day they taught the world the possibility of great states.

That was the lesson of those early times. It was a lesson needful to be taught. Without it the world could not have got on. But this was only one, and that among the lowest, that men needed to learn. They needed religion, and the Hebrew race came forth as the teacher of it. Religion was incorporated into the daily life of the Hebrews. It was the foundation of their politics. It was their guide in all affairs, foreign and domestic. The children of Abraham were the priests of mankind, and they uttered their sacred sayings with such emphasis that the world was compelled to listen. Man needed art and philosophy, and the Hellenic race came forward as the interpreter of these higher mysteries. It was the function of this marvellous people to awaken the sleepy intellect of the world, to call forth into active exercise and reason, the imagination, and the taste of mankind. How well they performed the task assigned them we shall remember when we notice that Grecian ideals still rule, to a great extent, the thinking world.

In the course of events the time came, when the old idea of holding together great masses of men by mere brute force, by the irresponsible exercise of one man's will, must be displaced, and a new power of cohesion must be introduced. These great communities, in order that they may make the needful progress, must come to be governed by principles, by wisely ordained rules. In short, law must take the place of mere personal domination. And lo, there appeared on the face of the earth the great Roman Commonwealth. Law was evolved. The idea of a rule independent of the personal will of the ruler appeared. Men said it is neither safe nor wise that the destinies of millions of mankind should be determined by the prejudice or the passion of one of their own number, distinguished from his fellows by the accident of birth or some other accident. Thus began the development and the study of jurisprudence. Law and politics became a science more or less perfect.

These achievements of past generations we are to-day inheriting. The idea of national unity comes to us from the very dawn of history. The religion taught by Moses has spread itself over the civilized world. Greek art and Greek thought have schooled the world to a love and appreciation of beauty and a discernment of truth. And the legal maxims that rule our courts to-day are lineally derived from the Pandects and the Institutes.

These facts are mentioned merely as illustrations. They simply show what a race can do in enriching the world. Many other examples might be cited. The Middle Ages, with all their darkness, were by no means altogether unproductive. The Gothic arch is worth something, and the idea represented by it is worth more. For how much are we indebted to the age of Luther, and indeed to every age that has since come and gone? This nineteenth century is the heir of all the ages.

But he is a thriftless heir who does not improve upon his estate. If we have taken from our predecessors, we ought to bequeath to those who come after us. It would be a shameful thing for this nineteenth century to boast of its mental possessions and attainments, most of which have been bestowed upon it, and to do nothing towards making the twentieth century still richer in knowledge and virtue. And so it is a reasonable question for us to ask ourselves, what we can do, what we are doing to make the world of to-morrow better than the world of to-day.

It is certainly not too much to claim that in our day the educational enterprise is one of the most important and characteristic. In this age we have deliberately set about training the minds and moulding the characters of the coming generation. When, therefore, the question arises, what this age is doing in the way of uplifting the race, it is fair to look to this enterprise and its methods for the answer. The problem of to-day is the educational problem. In proof of this let us consider the machinery of our schools, and compare it with all that the world has ever seen before. In what age, in what country have men incurred such a vast expense, made outlays of such immense sums of money for the establishment and maintenance of schools? In our own country one hundred millions of dollars a year, or thereabouts, are voluntarily contributed to this end. The subject of education is discussed as it never was before. The meeting of today is but one in a long series of great gatherings in the United States. Many of the ablest minds of the century are concentrating their thought upon the philosophy of education. And what is true in this country is true in other parts of the world. Every civilized nation is agitating the question and seeking the best attainable light upon it. If the historian of a thousand years hence, as he sums up the achievements of the different epochs in the world's annals, does not assign to this age the honor of being the teacher of the race in the philosophy and practice of education, then it must seem that the record he will make for us will be a blank. If we contribute nothing to the world's stock of knowledge on this subject, what contribution shall we make? In what department of higher human culture are we making additions?

It is sometimes said that this age is an age of material discovery and of the application, in the arts, of scientific principles, and surely this claim must be conceded. There have been times when men have seemed to be the slaves of the blind forces around them, times in which wind and wave, heat and cold, earthquake and tornado, domineered over the human race. Men lacked facilities for crossing the sea. There was no adequate power to resist the cold. Men crouched before the natural forces like timid hares before the angry lion. But that time has passed in a great measure. The natural forces are subjugated by the human will. The energies which were once so destructive to human life have been harnessed to the car of human progress. The ocean steamer seldom succumbs to the tempest. A stretch of three thousand miles of continent is a small obstacle in the way of the traveller. The lightnings, that were formerly known only as agents of destruction and terror, have become our obedient servants. We have compelled all nature to contribute to our comfort· We have grown rich in material possessions. Our great lack in these days is not a lack of material wealth. Divide the possessions of this great country equally among all the inhabitants and each one would have what in former days would have been called a princely estate. It is not especially necessary, therefore, that pains should be taken to instruct the youth of the country in the ways and means of increasing our material prosperity. We are not suffering on that side. We are not poverty stricken.

I am sure the theme is illustrated by this day's surroundings. We are in the midst of a city that is one of the marvels of even these times. Consider for a moment the rapidity with which wealth has been accumulated on this spot. The man who wrote the Arabian Nights gives us glowing accounts of the rearing of palaces by the power of magic. If the sober facts surrounding Chicago had been detailed to him, he would have rejected the account as too improbable for his story. Palaces have arisen here as if by some supernatural power. The evidences of luxuriant wealth are displayed on every hand. The eye is surfeited with the visions of material prosperity, and if the question were raised concerning the city, What are its deficiencies? Wherein does it lack ? the answer would not be that it is deficient in the power to make money. If it have a lack, it is in some other department, in some other line of activity. If something is to be added to its energies in order that its forces may be well balanced, we should hardly think that the addition ought to be in the line of material resources. And this city may be taken as an epitome of the world to-day. Chicago is the nineteenth century, possibly a little exaggerated. And Chicago's greatest danger is not that she shall be poverty-stricken. We need not agonize to teach her, through the schools, how to make money.

I submit that this material prosperity must be considered after all a subordinate thing. The right product of the highest civilization is an improved humanity. The chief end of man is not to construct railways, to erect massive buildings, or to launch titanic steamers. It is to develop noble men and women. The true test of the work of a nation or a race is, therefore, to be found in the realm of mind. If we would measure the true worth of Grecian civilization, we must inquire what effect it has had in the development of human character. Wherein is the race improved by what Greece has contributed to it? Now we know that large material possessions do not always imply a corresponding loftiness and symmetry in the development of mind. Very mean men have sometimes been very rich. The Romans of the later empire were a grovelling race, but they revelled in an abundance of the good things of this world. So that, to measure our present status and the value of our contributions to the true wealth of the world by these outward things, would be a perversion. It would be gauging men by their lowest attributes. We need, therefore, some loftier standard than all this. The significant question is not What are we doing in utilizing matter and changing its forms but What are we doing in the way of ennobling humanity and enlarging its powers?

In regard to educational processes and the knowledge to be imparted in schools, there has been and is a great variety of opinions. Whether there ever was a time when the instructors of any country or of the world were settled in respect to these things, when there was no strife, when there were no conservatives and progressives, we know not. In the early patriarchal times, or during the sluggish centuries of the Middle Ages, such a condition of things may have existed. The substance of the office of teaching may have been thoroughly established and universally accepted. But that is certainly not the case to-day. Nothing is sacred in these times. The iconoclast is abroad in the land. New methods, new principles demand recognition. Ambitious men seem to think that the readiest way to make a name for themselves is to call in question everything that has age. They demand a new heaven and a new earth. And we must consider that many of these demands are just. Progress is the law of life. Absolute content with what is known would mean mental stagnation. Its effect would be enfeebling upon the race. The people that quietly sit down with no higher ambition than to think over the thoughts and say over the words of their ancestors, are already struck with a mental paralysis. Man was meant to move. We are continually beckoned on to loftier heights and nobler achievements than the world has yet witnessed.

But we are to remember that the new ideas that have been proposed to mankind from the time when the human mind began to be active, down to the present moment, may be divided into two classes: the permanent and the transient. Occasionally the thinker comes upon a new truth which is genuine, which hath "the eternal years of God." When this happens, a noble addition is made to the inheritance of the race. Man is thereafter forever the richer, and that in the highest and best sense. It is cheering to think that the history of the world makes known many such discoveries. Every age has had its seers, its men who have been able to see into the deep things of God. Many instances of such discoveries are well known and often referred to. They relate to all forms of truth. There have been revelations in the moral world concerning man's duty and his destiny. Truths have come to light regarding the physical universe, truths which had been unknown. Thus it is that the nobler possessions of this race of mankind have been enlarging in amount and increasing in value.

But side by side with these eternal verities men have been promulgating their guesses. There are those who in their haste to be famous, cannot take the time to make sure of the truth. And so they pour out their undeveloped crudities. They catch a passing glimpse of something that they take to be truth, and immediately apply for a patent. A thorough, impartial investigation they cannot think of waiting for. They want the glory while they are living. The consequence is that some of the teaching to which we are called to listen has no basis in genuine, long-continued, faithful investigation. Sometimes these alleged discoveries seem to take possession of the talking world for a season. Sometimes a series of generations takes for highest wisdom that which turns out to be folly.

The Ptolemaic astronomy was held for the quintessence of truth by the most civilized nations of the earth; but it turned out to be not only fallacious but absolutely false. Sometimes that is taken for the highest wisdom which is only of inferior kind. The Aristotelian logic was not absolutely false, but as taught in the Middle Ages, it was far from the highest wisdom, and the Aristotelian logic held the world in its grasp for centuries.

And how are these differences tested? Who determines what is permanent truth and what is only a pretense? The only tribunal competent to decide such a question is the public sentiment of mankind as expressed through long historic periods. "The voice of the people is the voice of God," was the ancient adage, and when a sufficient period has been allowed for judgment to be correctly formed, no adage is truer. The voice of the people in some moment of excitement, swayed by passion or prejudice, may be the very opposite of a divine utterance; but the voice of the people as the result of enlightening experience running through centuries, instructed by the maxims of religion and morality and by the teachings of centuries of history,—the voice of the people thus qualified to speak, is indeed the voice of God. The principle that can endure the trial of free discussion, that comes out unscathed from the criticisms of a century, that commends itself to the sober judgment of men, long after the tempest of dispute has died away,—such a principle may be accepted with confidence.

Now it sometimes happens that questions coming up for discussion do not receive a sufficient amount of attention from the soundest thinkers and from the mass of the people to command adequate consideration, to challenge the judgment of a nation or race upon their merits. These questions are agitated more or less by their partisans, pro and con, but they never come before the great jury. The thought of the age is not really given to them. The "vox Dei" does not pronounce upon them. There have been times when the educational question was thus obscured and subordinated. But it is so no longer. The question is fairly before us. It will not down. The world is listening to the arguments upon it. It has the ear of the court and the jury. And whoever has a wise word to utter, whoever has a wise step to propose, whoever can clearly state a truth which has not been previously discerned, can have a hearing. His argument will be considered, his suggestion will be received, and at last will be treated as it deserves. In the fullness and thoroughness of this discussion is our hope. We believe that at last sound principles will be established. The enlightened public sentiment of mankind will discern the truth from the error. In the end a correct system of pedagogy will be evolved and firmly established. In the long run the voice of the people *will* indeed be the voice of God on this as on other questions.

In this process many of the specious theories of to-day will vanish. Some, possibly, that have been most loudly proclaimed. But nothing that is true will be lost. In this matter we may profitably learn from the past. We are to-day gleaning from bygone worthies, sifting their utterances, accepting this, rejecting that. We sit in judgment upon Comenius, Pestalozzi, Arnold, and Frœbel. By all these are we taught, but we accept none of them in all details. The central truths taught by these men we value and use, but we do not commit ourselves to the over-emphasis of some of their favorite points.

And thus it will be in the future; only, I think, the future critic will be more discriminating than we have been. The work we are doing to-day, the words we are uttering, the principles we are enunciating will be weighed and passed upon by men more thoroughly fitted for the work than we are. Thus the science of education will be perfected by the honest thinking, by the hard work, and in spite of the mistakes of many thousands of teachers and educational writers.

Fellow teachers, is there not some inspiration in the thought that we, who are participating in the work of this vast gathering, are laboring upon the greatest problem of this age? Coming from all parts of this free country, exchanging views that have been developed in states and territories remote from each other and greatly differing from each other in educational facilities, we are here to take counsel in respect to the most momentous enterprise now carried forward in this country or in the world. Let this thought exalt our hopes. Let it kindle our enthusiasm. Let it awaken our most careful thinking. Let it arouse our sense of responsibility. Let it also dignify our proceedings. May we learn to deal with a worthy cause in a worthy and becoming spirit.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL VALUE OF THE MODERN METHODS OF ELEMENTARY CULTURE.

THE SOCRATIC ELEMENT.

PROF. J. W. STEARNS,[*] WISCONSIN STATE UNIVERSITY.

The pedagogic element of elementary education secures the most vitalizing and rapid contact of the mind of the teacher with the mind of the pupil. We may readily distinguish several forms of mental contact. We may recognize first, that most familiar one upon which, largely, school instruction has for a long period rested. It depends upon the receptive power of the pupil. It appeals to this, and its end is secured only when test of memory will give up correctly that which has been given to it.

I might distinguish, in the second place, that form of contact which has for its purpose to develop the power of doing. It aims to secure skill; its process is essentially criticism, and derision and criticism, until the organism has grown to a certain way of acting and responding rapidly and accurately when called upon.

I have said that the Socratic element furnishes the most vitalizing form of contact. And it is vitalizing for this reason, that its purpose is not with the receptive powers and the memory essentially, and is not with the active physical powers, aiming at skill in the use of the body, but that its direct appeal is to thought powers, to the radical action of the human soul.

By the Socratic element, then, we mean that motive by which the teacher calls out the original thought activity of the pupil. It requires very great skill to do this; not merely knowledge, but skill and power. As the mind acts, the teacher is called upon to perceive the significance of its action, interpret it properly and to apply that sort of guidance which is needed that it may bring forth its best fruit. Here, then, a powerful man, or a magnetic woman, is able to exert the most vitalizing force upon the mind of the pupil. It is customary—and I think the custom is a wise one and founded upon fact—it is customary to regard the Socratic method after the two forms observed by the great master and founder of it. The first one of these is commonly designated as the negative form. There is a certain propriety in this designation, though not altogether satisfactory. Its supreme end, so far as the information is concerned, is descriptive. It is the process by which errors are corrected, by which defects are revealed; not directly and by deduction, but indirectly, and by questioning. When wisely conducted, it compels the pupil to take his information into his own mind, and hold it, to allow his consciousness to play about it, until its very suggestions and significance come out, and until the errors and concealed knowledge are made apparent to him by the operations of his own mind. If we had seen the philosopher on the streets at Athens, we should have discovered nothing striking in the method of his intercourse. He is a man talking with men, talking familiarly, talking about common things. When an error is made on the part of his antagonist, he does not pronounce it wrong. That is not his attitude; that he does not do, because of the extreme humility of the position. In his own time, he was pronounced the wisest man in Greece, and he claimed to have discovered wherein that wisdom lay. Other men thought they knew: he was aware that he did not know, and in this lay his wisdom. Hence he was not called upon to teach the positive truth, only to reveal the fallacies of those with whom he dealt. By the most shrewdly conducted questioning, wonderfully subtle and keen, he led his antagonist step by step from a position which seemed simple and self-evident, on into that other conclusion, which finally rendered it impossible for him to hold the opinion with which he started out.

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[*] Reported by a stenographer.

This is negative and destructive so far as this part then is concerned. But we should lose its great significance if we stopped here. It is the effect upon mind, this supremely stimulating action which never passes from under that magic questioning without feeling that there had been stirred in him a necessity to know that which he had before thought he knew. The mind could not rest under such a sense of failure as came upon it, when the sudden flash of the final question revealed how indisputable his position was.

And now, allow me to say, that even for young pupils there is nothing so effective in awakening original mental activity, where thought-power exists, as these negative, destructive germs. We are altogether too anxious to plant the seeds of truth, we have not enough faith in humanity; and lack confidence in the right working of a wholesome child-mind. If we simply reveal error, many times he will set himself right, and to have done that is to have learned to think. But besides that, it is of very great value in revealing, or developing the self-criticism of the child. When he has once learned to pass all opinions which come into his mind under these rules, to insist that they bear multiplied tests, to square them with facts, he has learned the great art of thinking; and no process has yet been discovered equal to that original one of Socrates himself, of displaying, by the action of the speaker's own mind, the fallacy into which he has fallen, and leaving him to work out his own salvation as best he may.

I said there are two forms of this. In addition to the negative Socratic teaching, there appeared in the mind and practice of the master a negative form, on the whole less commonly used apparently, but notwithstanding, also extremely instructive and valuable to us. In this, the pupil, the learner, or respondent, is also taken from some simple point, which his common sense and common observation has revealed to him, and under the skilful manipulation of his questioner his mind proceeds on, step by step, to unfold the significance of it. At length there flashes upon him that sudden delight and inspiration, the new view of what it means, and he finds himself to be a discoverer; he has the pleasure and delight of discovery. This which we have come to know as the developing method is too long to discuss fully. Suffice it to say that, like the other, its chief merit is in developing the original thought power of the pupil.

When he has once trodden that path, and met, at the end of it, delight, he will seek again to pass over it, until his mind learns how to move from any centre out towards it. Thus his mind becomes fruitful and many-sided.

I have then undertaken to say that this Socratic method, this Socratic element involves the most vitalizing contact of the mind of the teacher with the mind of the pupil, because, in the first place, it stimulates him profoundly in a negative way, through its criticism, through its destruction of his false opinion; and because, in the second place, in this negative way it promotes the habit and practice of self-criticism, so that he learns how to fashion his thought and get at results.

I have said, in the second place, that it is productive positively, in its positive form, because it thus stimulates the learner to follow it from simple beginning or many suggestions of thought, until they bring forth new results in his mind, giving him the joy of discoveries, and furnishing him thus an abiding interest in the things of the undertaking.

Now, it requires no mind power to handle teaching of this sort; yet every man may not shoot with his bow, here in this vital contact with the mind of the pupil. The great teacher is the one who knows how to understand what the pupil sees, and what his attitude is. He sees how from this he may be let into the light; how from this he may be stimulated to discover his own weakness. Such a man filled with learning,

—not that which is superficial, upon the end of his tongue, but that under perfect mastery,—such a man vitalizes the mind of his pupil, pours upon it a flood of light, and makes it rich and productive. And hence I think we may agree with the wise and eloquent statement of Mr. F. W. Robinson, who says: "All teaching need not be deep, but all teaching"—and let us say, even primary teaching—"ought to be founded upon depth." No man can guide the mind of another, even in elementary matters, who does not correctly understand the relation of it to the things beyond, so that in his unfoldings of the thought of the pupil, the teacher may make it fully significant and inspiring to him.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT IN TEACHING.

HON. JOHN W. DICKINSON, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The topic assigned to me as the subject of my paper is "The Objective Element in Teaching."

In considering this subject it may be well to turn attention first to its meaning. This requires an explanation of what is implied in the term "teaching," and of what the objective element in the act of teaching consists.

The activity which school exercises require is that which produces knowledge, and a right development of the faculties.

To occasion this activity appropriate objects and subjects of thought must be presented to the learner's mind.

The act of presenting these things, for the accomplishment of the two ends which school exercises should be adapted to accomplish, is teaching.

The different means used in teaching and the different ways in which the means are used are the origin of different methods. If the means are the objects themselves, the objective method is employed. If the objects of knowledge are presented first as integral units or wholes, and after that analyzed in an orderly manner for a study of their parts or attributes, then the objective method includes in its application the analytic process.

This method, thus applied, constitutes the objective element in teaching to which attention is now invited.

The use of this method requires, first, that all objects of knowledge which the learner is required to know in themselves, shall be presented to his mind; and second, it requires that these things, whether physical or mental, shall be presented as integral units or wholes, and then analyzed for a knowledge of their parts or attributes, and for a knowledge of the relations of their parts to one another, and to the wholes which they form. These two requirements have reference to that teaching which has knowledge for its end. It will also be seen that the use of the objective method furnishes the occasions for the mind to develop itself by the free use of its power on the objects of knowledge in its presence.

The value of the objective element in teaching, then, depends on its relation to the laws of the mind that control it, in the acquisition of knowledge, and in the right development of its faculties.

This leads us to inquire more definitely for the conditions which affect the mind in its efforts to learn, and to acquire that facility in acting which we call mental discipline.

The acquisition of knowledge implies the existence of a knowing mind, and of something to be known.

The mind knows through the activity of its regulative power, by which ideas are formed; through the exercise of the acquisitive powers by which a consciousness of the phenomena of matter and mind is produced; and through the exercise of the representative and elaborative powers, whose office it is to reproduce and recognize past mental states, and to generalize and reason.

The mind is the cause of its own states. It can form ideas, but not until proper occasions for them have been presented. These occasions must hold objective relations to the mind.

The proof of this is found in the experience of every mind that attempts to form ideas.

The occasions may be material things or mental states, but both alike must become objects to the mind before ideas of them can be produced. After the ideas have been once formed, they may be associated with their proper signs, and reproduced by the use of language.

When we turn our attention to the relations that our intellectual states bear to one another we shall find that, as our thoughts are acts of comparison of ideas simple or complex, and our knowledge a consciousness of the agreement or disagreement of ideas and thoughts, neither our thoughts nor our knowledge can exist beyond our ideas. This truth shows the necessity of introducing the objective element into all forms of teaching that has the acquisition of knowledge as its end.

From what has been said we may infer that one of the principles of true teaching is found in that law of the mind which limits its activity in acquiring knowledge to objects in its presence, and that the method of teaching conforming to this principle is the objective method.

Again, every object and subject may be made the occasion of three kinds of knowledge. One kind may have for its object a whole made up of all its parts and attributes. Another kind may be of the parts themselves. A third may be of relations. Knowledge that includes the three kinds is complete. The conditions of the existence of complete knowledge in the learner's mind should direct our attention to the right manner of employing the objective method of teaching.

For a knowledge of the whole as such, the whole must be presented. For a knowledge of the parts or qualities of that whole, the whole must be presented at the first, and the component parts found in it by an analysis conducted in an orderly way.

The parts of a material thing may be taken up in the order in which they are found distributed in nature, called the natural order.

The parts of a subject should be taught in the order of their logical relations, or in such an order that the thoughts occasioned by their presence may hold the relation of dependence of one that follows upon one that next precedes, called the logical order.

The natural and logical order of parts of objects and subjects of knowledge should be carefully observed by those who make topics to guide teachers in teaching and pupils in study, and for two reasons.

First, the laws of association upon which the activity of memory depends require it.

Second, a knowledge of the relations which the parts bear to one another can be obtained in no other way, than by a study of them as they are related. That law of the mind which requires this analysis to be made is the foundation of another principle of teaching, and adds to the objective method the analytic element.

Again, the mind must know the facts of science before the comprehension of scientific knowledge is possible. It is not prepared to pass from the known to the unknown, as it must pass, in all acts of generalization, until something is known. This something is a knowledge of facts, which knowledge must be occasioned primarily by the use of the objective method of teaching and study. The possession of elementary knowledge prepares the mind for the activity of the powers of generalization and reasoning, whose products constitute a knowledge of classes and of causes or scientific knowledge.

In this law of the mind that determines the relation of elementary to scientific knowledge there may be found another principle of teaching, that establishes the order in which the occasions for a knowledge of individuals and of classes shall be presented to the pupil's mind.

This principle requires every course of studies to be constructed in two courses, one for a knowledge of facts, the other for a knowledge of general truth.

From what has been said, it appears that, in so far as the acquisition of knowledge is concerned, the principles upon which the objective method of teaching is founded are in harmony with the laws that control the activity of the human mind in knowing.

If we turn our attention now from knowledge to mental development,—the supreme end which teaching should endeavor to accomplish,—we shall find that, as the objective method provides for the systematic and independent exercise of all the faculties upon appropriate objects, in this, it provides for their natural development. For the same laws of the mind, that must be observed in teaching for knowledge, are to be observed also in teaching for the improvement of the powers by whose activity knowledge is produced.

A complete collection and proper arrangement of principles, derived from the laws of the mind that control its activity in acquiring knowledge and discipline, must constitute the true science of teaching. These principles have been defined in their order.

The first requires the presence to the mind of all objects to be known.

The second and third require both physical and mental things to be studied by the analytic process.

The fourth requires elementary knowledge to be acquired, as a condition for the acquisition of scientific knowledge.

The fifth requires the learner to use his active power, as a condition for mental development.

The objective method seems to be in harmony with the science of teaching, and if rightly applied will be adapted to produce the results desired.

Teaching must address itself primarily and directly to the mind as an intellect. The emotions both simple and complex, in so far at least as they are rational, are conditioned upon knowledge; and volitions, in so far as they are occasioned by influences external to the will itself, are conditioned upon the emotions.

Right mental development, the great end to be secured by school exercises, must be produced, if at all, by the right exercise of the mind in learning, and the resultant right exercise of the sensibilities and will.

The mind is educated in the best sense of the term, when it has acquired the ability and inclination to think so as to discover the truth, to feel the pleasure or pain which the truth is adapted to occasion, and to choose the best ends. Such an education includes all that can be accomplished by teaching.

An intelligent discussion of a method of teaching renders it necessary to keep in mind what teaching is, what are its ends, and what are the principles upon which it is founded.

Method must not be confounded with manner of teaching. This will be avoided by bearing in mind that the one is founded on principles, the other arises from the individuality of the teacher. A clear distinction must also be made between knowledge and information, and between that cultivation of the faculties which trains them on the one hand to receive effects, and on the other to produce them. If these things are observed, no confusion will arise concerning the legitimate use of books and lectures and illustrative apparatus in teaching.

The conditions of knowledge and mental development are fixed, and it is necessary for the teacher to understand them and to have his method of teaching conform to their requirements.

OUTLINE OF A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, PH. D., PRESIDENT OF ST. LOUIS NORMAL SCHOOL.

DEFINITION AND TERMINOLOGY.

Education is the practice through which the germs of good that lie as possibilities in child-nature are drawn forth and realized. While such educational practice differs in each individual case, there are, nevertheless, some elements or principles which recur in every instance where education is practised. A formulated system of such principles would form the science of education, which may be called Pedagogics.

AUXILIARY SCIENCES.

The aim of education is not the development of every talent or tendency that lies dormant in the child, but the drawing forth of that which is good only. The definition of, and the inquiry into the idea of the good constitute the subject of the science of ethics, which for this reason is an auxiliary to pedagogics. It determines for the latter the aim of education. The physical and mental constitution of the child limits, on the other hand, the possibilities of education, and shows by what means the educator can exercise the proper developing influence on the young mind. The auxiliary sciences on which pedagogics bases its principles are ethics in the first place, and psychology and hygiene in the second. The former fixes the aim, the latter determine the means in the process of education.

LEADING PRINCIPLES OF THE AUXILIARY SCIENCES. ETHICS.

Ethical character or virtue is the crowning glory of strong manhood and womanhood; and, therefore, the aim of education may be defined as the development of ethical character in the young. The human relations in which the ethical character of the individual can manifest itself through actions are man's relation to himself, to other individuals, and to society. This threefold relationship leads to the demand for ethical training in three directions. In the individual's mind there are natural impulses which are not in accordance with what both intelligence and conscience teach him to be the best rule of action. His own heart is the battle-ground of the constant war between natural and spiritual tendencies. He must renounce constantly those pleasures towards which his natural impulses and appetites tempt him, for the sake of the spiritual enjoyment which flows from self-control, and the subordination of self to the best motives in us. Thus the first ethical aim is the subordination of the will to conscience, and its unceasing activity in the service of the right and the good. By another expression, this striving after rectitude and vigor of will may be called the struggle for inner freedom.

In regard to man's relation to his fellow beings, the ethical demand is that he should cherish good will towards his neighbor, and that his actions should be guided by it. Thus active good will, charity, or love is the second ethical demand, and forms the next aim of education.

Man's relation to society forms the object of the third ethical idea. Both conscience and intelligence prompt him to let his business activity in life, and his actions as a citizen and a man be in harmony with the general good. The third ethical demand is, therefore, the devotion of the individual to the higher interests of society or civilization.

THE THREE PRACTICAL ETHICAL IDEAS.

The three ideas which embody the substance of ethical character or virtue are 1, Rectitude and vigor of will, in other words, inner freedom; 2, Good will towards other individuals; 3, Devotion to the higher interests of life. These three ideas form the special aims of education.

In trying to realize them in the individual life, education in the first place is conditioned by the child's physical and mental limitations. It can accomplish that only which these two factors make possible. A study of these conditions will give an insight into the limits and the means of education. In training child-life the principles of hygiene must be observed above all other considerations, for physical vigor is the basis of all the higher activities of life. Yet, since the influences by which the educator affects the formation of the child's character are spiritual ones, the laws of the child's mind, such as psychology teaches them, are still more important auxiliary principles.

PSYCHOLOGY.

The primal law of psychology is that the soul is a self-conscious energy; from this the inference follows that it can be influenced through intelligence and activity only. Volition is its active principle. The channel through which the latter can be made accessible to external influences is intelligence. Midway between volition and intelligence, as a kind of mediating link, stand the feelings, which, on one hand are easily influenced through ideas, and on the other, hold a most potent sway over the desires and through them over the will. No one fails to realize how strongly volition and action are influenced, for instance, by the feelings of love or hate, by fear or hope. Our interests in particular are the strongest motive power which determines human action, whether we take the word interest in the general sense of that in which our welfare is concerned in some way, or in the sense of the feeling of attraction by which we are drawn toward certain things. Man's will tends in the direction in which his interests point, and his volition is more energetic there. His intellectual life wanders in the paths of his interests. The warrior delights in recollections of battle, and the mystic forgets himself in the contemplation of the divine. A dominant interest chains both will and thought into its powerful yoke. On the other hand the interests of man are again the results of his intellectual life. What is not known, cannot form the subject of interest or be the object of desire. This truth is incontrovertible, and reveals the fact that the dominant interest may be built up by influencing intelligence, and that we may make the circle of interest expand by widening the sphere of knowledge.

THE GENERAL IDEA OF EDUCATION.

The foregoing ethical and psychological principles are sufficient to outline the general idea of education. All education must have for its ultimate aim to influence the child's will so as to make it ethical; right living should be the result. The test of a finished education is not the amount of knowledge which it has lodged in the memory of the child, but the influence which it has had on his habits of life. Education should seek its crowning glory in the pupil's deeds, not in his store of information; its great aim is not scholarship, but manhood and womanhood. There is an inherent tendency in all school-education which makes it veer and drift from its true course, so that it steers towards scholasticism instead of steering for the green shores of life.

THE THREEFOLD TASK OF EDUCATION.

A further consideration of the psychological and ethical principles on which the philosophy of education is to be built will show that it has three functions, through which it may influence the child's life and build his character. These are guidance, instruction, and discipline. Since at least two of these terms are used in a technical sense, an explanation of their meaning is necessary.

GUIDANCE.

Education, as we have seen, has for its aim to secure the growth of ethical life. In the early years of the child, while his intelligence is still dormant and cannot exercise any controlling influence over his actions, his volitional nature is already active. He is subject to the sway of the animal nature in him, his appetites and desires are strong and impel his volition. Here the first task of education begins: the curbing and controling of appetites and desires. The means cannot be the child's intelligence, and the influence which the educator exercises through it, for these are not yet strong enough in the young being to cope with his animal nature. He must be influenced through love and authority, and be made to obey the rule which as yet he cannot understand. Even against his wish he must be prevented from becoming the slave of desire and appetite. This first educational task may be called guidance: the hand of the parent takes hold of the child, restrains him and leads him. Whether he be willing or not, he is led away from wrong and guided to the right. Guidance is all the more indispensable, because every wrong in which the child is indulged, leaves a disposition to repeat it and to develop a corresponding habit. Through guidance the child is made to form correct hygienic habits, he is kept out of mischief through proper occupation and play, through direction, supervision, command, and punishment. All these are means which educational guidance employs. It works through obedience chiefly, and for this reason guidance ceases in a measure, as the child's intelligence grows and he can be influenced through reason. Guidance has, therefore, relatively completed its task when the child is admitted to school, where education through instruction and discipline begins.

INSTRUCTION AND DISCIPLINE.

The aim of all education is virtue or ethical character. Virtue may be defined as the agreement between man's action and his highest moral insight. Neither of these two taken by itself constitutes virtue. Blind will is not virtue, even if it should happen to will the right. Nor is intelligence, or the deepest insight into moral principles, virtue, unless it is joined to the corresponding volition and action. The training of ethical character, therefore, requires a double activity: it must train intelligence and lead it to an insight into the idea of freedom, good will, and the interests of civilized society; and secondly, it must influence the will in the direction of their realization in the individual life. Thus education has two factors, the training of the intelligence through instruction, and the influencing of the will through intelligence, which may be called discipline.

By discipline, therefore, we mean the ethical influence exerted on the will through intelligence. When the child, for instance, reads an account of the noble qualities exhibited in Franklin's life, it may be in the first place merely a reading lesson, a drill in the pronunciation of certain words. But if the admiration and interest of the child follow the hero of the story; if he grasp the ethical significance of it; if an appreciation of the maxims of temperance, of integrity and a desire for imitation are aroused in the young soul, the training of the child's intelligence through such reading lesson has a disciplinary value, and contributes towards giving to his life an ethical form. Nor is the term discipline confined to the ethical influence of studies; any agency which improves character through the cultivation of judgment is included. Thus the intelligent devotion to duty and work, family life in so far as it appeals to the child's intelligence, intercourse with his equals, patience and endurance practiced for some worthy end, the care of the first things which he calls his own, the acquired control over his passions, all these are factors in the process of discipline, because they form character through intelligent experience. The main factor in discipline, however, is direct instruction.

INSTRUCTION.

Since the aim to be accomplished through the training of the intelligence is the promotion of ethical life, it follows that, in instruction, knowing and doing should be kept in close relationship. The absorption of the data of knowledge should ever be accompanied by some activity of the pupil in which he uses what he has gained. He should learn to work with the knowledge which he has received, and receptivity and productivity should alternate in the task of instruction. Knowing and doing should remain intimately related, even if for no other than the ethical reason, that intelligence should ever lead to deeds.

The question, how instruction can contribute toward building an ethical life, has found an explicit answer in the psychological principles given at the beginning of this paper. The interests of man exercise a dominant influence on his actions, and instruction can, therefore, by widening the sphere of interests which an individual possesses, exercise an ethical influence which is surpassed by that of no other agency. Instruction should arouse in the pupil a many-sided and animated interest in nature and man. It must supplement the lessons of life and experience. The child should remain a stranger to no human interest. The highest interests of intelligence and sympathy should be developed in him. He should be led in the first place to enjoy his work, so that lasting pleasure in the pursuit of knowledge, love of nature, delight in reflection, appreciation of the beautiful, and, above all, active sympathy with man and his institutions, and deep religious feeling may be the result. Not school interest but life interest remains the aim.

CULTIVATION OF THE INTERESTS.

The immediate aim of instruction is to arouse in the pupil a many-sided interest in nature and man, and the question therefore arises, how the various studies of the common schools may be made to contribute toward such an end. We have divided the interests of man into those of intelligence and sympathy. A further analysis of the first of these divisions shows that the interests of intelligence are empirical, speculative or æsthetic. The observation of nature, the inference of laws, the admiration of the beautiful, each forms a kind of interest.

The interests of sympathy, on the other hand, are those which center in man, in society, and in God.

Any kind of objective instruction, the elements of natural science, any training of the observing powers that occur incidentally will promote the empirical interest. Arithmetic and all studies which rely on reasoning and inference will develop the speculative interest, while reading, the study of language, and poetry have a cultivating influence on the æsthetic interest. As regards the interests of sympathy, the influence which reading has on the cultivation of a brotherly interest in our fellow-beings, as well as of the altruistic interest in society and its institutions, makes it the center of instruction. History, too, promotes this ethical aim. It is a grave error to look upon intellectual acquisition, as the chief aim in teaching history. Its highest aim is immeasurably superior to that of mere intellectual culture: it is to instil patriotism and to lead to sympathy with the objects of the state.

The philosophy of education which has been submitted to you in this brief sketch rather suggests than represents a system of Pedagogics. The limit of the time allotted to this paper precludes any completion of the details. But while lacking in detail, I believe the system to be connected in its leading thoughts, and valid in the important practical inferences which may be derived from it.

THE NATURAL OR DEVELOPING ELEMENT IN MODERN METHODS OF ELEMENTARY CULTURE.

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In looking for the limitations of my subject, I find it seriously entangled with the other elements enumerated by the president.

The Socratic Element appears simply as an adaptation of the art of questioning to the requirements of self-active development. The method of Socrates was a *developing* method; it was strictly inductive, heuristic, seeking, inventive. He did not, like the sophists, start with definitions and dogmas, seeking to deduce therefrom and to classify thereby the concrete phenomena of life, but proceeded inductively from definite facts of experience and observation to unforeseen conceptions and convictions. On the other hand, he was eminently practical,—*natural*,—"called philosophy down from heaven to earth."

Again, I recognize in the Objective Element the acceptance of the facts that, in their *natural development*, the higher phases of thought rest on the lower, that all forms of consciousness grow on the soil of sense-perception, and that reliable insight and efficient conduct can be derived only from contact with the external things of life.

Lastly, I see in the Scientific Element the tendency, induced by the observation of *nature* and *development*, to let all things declare their origin and destiny by their *natural* self-active *development*, without any forcing or guiding, bossing or predestinating interferences from the outside. Indeed, where the scientist becomes active on the side of this natural development, and rises from observation to experiment, he confines himself to the removal of hinderances and to the supplying of favorable conditions; and adapts himself to the results of previous observation, obeys the behests of natural, self-active development.

Thus the Socratic Element appears as an early application of the *natural* and *developing method* to dialectics; the Objective (or Intuitional) Element coincides with the same method as applied in earlier phases of child-life. On the other hand, we find that this method rests in its genesis on *scientific* modes of observation and reasoning, and in its application acknowledges *scientific* principles as the criteria of all it does; it stands or falls on its claim of being scientific.

Inasmuch, then, as the natural or developing method rests on science, and inasmuch as science is refined and systematized common sense, we may expect to find the beginnings of this method in the earliest dawn of history; for common sense somewhat sways the thoughts and destinies of mankind at all times. Yet there are obvious reasons for fixing on the beginning of the Baconian period as the birth-time of the method. Neglecting, therefore, the long previous period of gestation, let us pass in rapid review the chief points in the history of the now lively infant.

The child was born when Bacon cut loose from reverence for antiquity, and for the authority of men and of unanimity. "Truth," he claimed, "is the daughter of time and not of authority;" therefore *we* are the ancients possessed of greater experience, wider observation, and deeper meditation, favored with a clearer vision of truth than our forefathers, "who are old only with respect to ourselves, but young with reference to the world."

In the search for scientific truth, experience is his sole resource; for this he would establish securer foundations, freeing it from vagueness and arbitrariness, and rendering it continuous and progressive, that is, developing. At the same time, he recognizes the supremacy of nature which is to be commanded only by obeying her; for "no power can break her chain of causes."

In his teaching he would offer no violence — dialectic, authoritative, or mystic,— and spread no nets for the judgment of men, but lead them to things themselves and their relations. He gives it as the capital precept that the eye of the mind be never taken off from the things themselves, but receive their images truly as they are; we must "renounce notions and begin to form the acquaintance of things." "Only thus can man hope to learn the difference between the idols of the human mind and the ideas of the divine mind."

He finds the real and legitimate goal of the sciences in "the endowment of human life with new inventions and riches;" and he severely scores "the great crowd of teachers who know nothing of this, but consists of dictatorial hirelings."

Comenius, mightiest among Bacon's early interpreters in the work of education, follows him closely in the esteem of experience and things. "Things," he says, "are essential, words accidental; things the body, words the dress; things the kernels, words the shell. Both should be given simultaneously, but above all the things, for they are objects both of knowledge and of language." He refers to divine revelation for their explanation, and finds in them the criteria of human ideas.

He firmly believes in development, for "all we do and suffer shows that we have not attained the ultimate aim, that all in us, like ourselves, strives higher." "Nothing," he exclaims, "can be put into man from without; but only what he has in himself undeveloped, that can be developed and unfolded, and shown in its nature."

He insists on the need of cultivation and guidance in development; and, in this, bases his method on an imitation of nature. From her he learns "to observe the right time for his work, to prepare his material before he forms it, to select suitable subjects and to prepare them, to proceed deliberately and without confusion, to work from within outward, to go from generals to particulars, to proceed continuously and step by step, to bring things to their issue, and to avoid antagonism and injury."

He has not yet learned to study the child's nature and to follow it, but rather observes natural processes in the development of lower organisms, and takes his lessons from these.

Comenius is credited with being the first to see clearly the value of manual training as an educational factor. The quotations, however, on which this claim is based, furnish slight foundation for the claim. His utterance that children "should learn to say with their lips and to express ideas with their hands" has reference only to writing. His "learn to do by doing" refers expressly to the arts of "writing, speaking, singing, and reckoning" only. In his description of the vernacular school he assigns as the last task "general instruction in the mechanic arts;" but nothing in his "Didactica" warrants the conclusion that this was to be done in any other way than by words and pictures. Even the strongest line in his "Pansophic School" leaves doubt concerning the character of the "activity of actions" which is to form a portion of school-work.

On the other hand, it is significant that Francke, who based his marvellous work at Halle on the teachings of Comenius and Locke, gave his boys regular instruction in wood-turning, pasteboard work, the grinding of lenses, engraving and the like, while the girls learned to spin, to knit, to sew, and even to split wood.

At any rate, all the great names in the growth of education since Comenius,—Locke, Francke, Rousseau, Basedow, Salzmann, Hensinger, Pestalozzi, Herbart—give increasing attention to work as an educational factor, until in Frœbel the thought appears fully developed for practical fruition.

Among these men, Locke cleared the way for development, by proving the absurdity of the Cartesian innate principles, and by establishing the value of sensation and reflection as the true sources of ideas.

But development is impossible without freedom and an unswerving regard for the nature of the organism to be developed. It is Rousseau's great merit to have established this thought with convincing fervor, compelling the discipleship of the best and strongest. His impetuosity fanned the smouldering fire of manly self-assertion into a fierce blaze, and mediæval hinderances at last found a living grave in history.

At last the problem was clearly and impressively stated, burnt into the very consciences of men. Henceforth education must seek its aim in continuous development of whatever is ascendingly highest in man, henceforth education must seek its ways in active obedience to the laws that live in the innermost being of man; henceforth the history of education is an account of the successive attempts to solve the problem stated by Rousseau.

The clearest and most comprehensive solutions have been offered by Dittes from the standpoint of the school, by Spencer from the standpoint of science, and by Frœbel from the standpoint of full, practical humanity.

Dittes bases his solution on what he designates as the *natural* and *cultural* principles. The natural principle demands that instruction be adapted to the nature of the pupil. It is concerned chiefly with methods and the limitations of the work. It postulates self-activity, spontaneous development from within, and fullest adaptation of the work to the learner's power.

The cultural principle demands the adaptation of instruction to the sum of the attainments in civilization that characterize our people and our period. It is concerned with the subjects of instruction, courses of study, in short, with the question, What shall we teach? It postulates truth and applicability to the needs of life as the criteria in the choice of material.

The two principles conjointly demand all-sidedness and permanence of development, both with reference to the learner's powers and to the cultural elements of instruction; they demand, too, subjective and objective unity and harmony with reference to the learner's education as a whole.

It would be a most grateful task to show the application of these principles in the work of the school. Essentially Pestalozzian in conception, they were strengthened and purified in thoughtful experience by Diesterweg, and, at last, revealed to us in their cosmic wholeness by the vigorous, philosophic mind of Dittes. But I must return to our problem.

Spencer approaches this problem from the standpoint of science, or "organized knowledge." He finds the condition for a perfect scheme of culture in a rational psychology; that is, in the organized knowledge of child-nature and human nature.

In the absence of such knowledge, he offers some "empirical approximations towards a perfect scheme." For this, he places himself broadly on the law of evolution, which implies in the progress of life continuous changes from homogeneity to heterogeneity, from indefiniteness to definiteness, both in matter and motion, in body and spirit.

The progress from less to greater coherence, and from homogeneity to heterogeneity, implies the "increase in structure" which he designates as the essence of development; it involves the laws of heredity, variability, and selection.

Among these, heredity bids education "conform in order and method to the natural process of mental evolution," and grants success only if we "render our measures subservient to that spontaneous unfolding which all minds go through in their progress to maturity;" it demands that "the genesis of knowledge in the individual follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race," that, therefore, we proceed from the empirical to the rational, from art to science, from doing to knowing.

Variability and heredity, together, postulate self-development or self-activity, while variability and selection point to joy or pleasure as the criterion of healthful mental action.

The progress from homogeneity to heterogeneity necessarily leads to regard for individuality. It bids us proceed from the simple to the complex, and—in the progress from indefiniteness to definiteness—from the concrete to the abstract, from the particular to the general.

In these suggestions Spencer runs fairly parallel with Dittes's natural principle. Similarly, in "What Knowledge is Most Worth?" he coincides fairly with Dittes's cultural principle. He finds the function of education in preparation for complete living, for the use of all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others, for the right ruling of our actions in all directions and under all circumstances, surely the highest outcome of culture. He furnishes a list of human activities in their order of cultural possibility: direct self-preservation, indirect self-preservation, parenthood, citizenship, and refinements of life. In accordance with these considerations, he suggests a course of study as comprehensive as his one-sided standpoint will permit.

It is to be regretted that Spencer should estimate the educational value of the human activities in the order of their possibility, rather than in the inverse order of their desirability. While, indeed, the higher activity rests on the lower, and can become strong only on the strength of the lower, yet the lower owes its value wholly to the higher possibilities involved therein. Therefore, self-preservation, parenthood, citizenship, and the refinements of life successively find their justification in the higher possibilities lying in each.

The most comprehensive and all-sidedly satisfactory answer to our problem comes from Frœbel. Although in time he preceded Dittes and Spencer, in his scheme he anticipates and includes them. This preeminence he owes to his standpoint, which is that of full practical humanity. Dittes limits himself to school-instruction; Spencer, indeed, includes the entire educational period, but approaches it as an object of knowledge only, and excludes the deeper convictions of the soul, which are derived from direct, inner contact with the unknowable.

Frœbel, however, rests his scheme primarily on these convictions, as offering the only available, permanent ground-work, in no way subject to the shiftings of science, which, indeed, may approach the unknowable, but can no more take its place than it can reveal its mysteries.

To him education is, therefore, primarily and intensely religious. It accepts without question the inner oneness of all things, their vital coherence, as a primal fact that announces itself to our reason with axiomatic force, needing no proof beyond itself and admitting of none, an all-including self-evidence, whose weakening in any particular must annihilate all existence.

For phenomenal life this postulates an ever-active beginning, an ever-flowing source, an ever-efficient cause, as well as an ever-present end or aim, a rational outcome or purpose, an ever-living destiny; in short, *all-sided continuity of being.* To Frœbel, education starts with and from God; its staff is universal law; reason is its guide; its aim is god-likeness.

It all proximate aims and in every particular of method he bases his work on a thoughtful study of human nature in the gradual unfolding of its individual, social, and generic phases. True to his principle, that all outer individuality and diversity are the expression of an inner unity, he fosters and cultivates in individual life the tendency for social integration, and leads it to heights where the individual sees himself a conscious pulse in the life of humanity, whose destiny is in the perfection of the Father. Mindful of the fact that in all life the higher rests on the lower, he bestows eager and conscientious care on the lowliest phases of the work; and, equally mindful of the fact that the lower derives its value from the higher, he unremittingly directs all streams to higher and highest life. He is never mired in the shallow bogs of egotistic or altruistic utilitarianism, nor overwhelmed by the mighty floods of feeling that pour into the soul when it beholds the Most High. Never does the school-master absorb his manhood, or the German in him—mighty as he is — get the better of his humanity.

In the bosom of the family the child is received. Here the father's light and the mother's love are to impart to him individual strength and self-assertion, are to lead him to find and to possess himself, to give him self-ownership. Kindergarten and school are to teach him the helpful use of these qualities and powers in the higher purposes of social groups; to lift him into the high art of rational self-sacrifice for a common welfare, so that life may in due time lead him to the lofty self-denial which fills with heavenly peace the soul at one with humanity and with God.

His intense religious sense takes into service physiology, psychology, history, science in all its forms. He avails himself of whatever light and help they may give his eternal soul in its struggles with time and space. Hence, in all that pertains to these, he is persistently scientific. Free from prejudice, from "idols of tribe, den, market and theatre," he seeks and tests all knowledge in actual, systematic, methodical contact with the world and with life.

Knowledge—wide and accurate—is, indeed, indispensable to insure the world-mastership involved in man's destiny; but Frœbel demands for his pupil, in gathering such knowledge, direct contact with nature and life, direct experience and experiment. He is opposed to proxydom and vicariousness; he will not be satisfied with second-hand men and women; each one is to stand on his own ground, and to live out a self of his own.

Again, his education is pre-eminently practical; it tests the value of all knowledge in expression, in action, in actual life. The measure of all knowledge is its efficiency in and for life. Knowledge must increase conscious power, and this it can do only through practice, under suitable guidance, judicious instruction. He wants not less knowledge but rather more, and all of it living in enhanced power and strengthened practice; he wants not less instruction but rather more, and all with a living purpose. No subject is taken up arbitrarily; the learner wants it and demands it for his own purposes.

The very destiny of created things lies in expression. Hence the value of manual activity, speech, artistic activity, conduct. *Im*pression—learning—is of value only because it prepares, directs, intensifies, enhances *ex*pression—conduct. Frœbel's education, therefore, finds its gravitating center in expression, in action; it judges man less by what he may have or know, but rather by what he is and does. "Not what enters corrupts, but what goes out." His education means to give power through practice; it does not "learn by doing," but learns in order to do, "learns to do by doing."

Lastly, his education is progressively affirmative, undogmatic, recognizes inner freedom as its chief objective aim. It is forever putting out fresh buds, fresh shoots, new wood; it is in no way the tool of old time, and knows not the prick of precedent; its to-day is ever a prophecy of a brighter and fuller to-morrow; it is forever new.

DISCUSSION.

W. T. HARRIS, LL.D., PRESIDENT OF THE CONCORD SCHOOL OF PHILOSOPHY.

President W. E. Sheldon, National Educational Association :—

Dear Sir :—I had hoped to be present at this meeting of the Association, up to the time of the final arrangement of the programme, when I discovered, to my extreme mortification, that the day set for this debate is the same as that appointed for the opening of our Concord School of Philosophy. It was too late to make other arrangements.

Under the circumstances, I send you the following brief summary of the reflections occasioned by a study of the abstracts of the papers which discuss your topic: "The Psychological and Pedagogical Value of the Modern Methods of Elementary Culture."

1. I note first, that the Pyschological value is to be distinguished from the Pedagogical value. I understand that a method may be correct in the main features of its psychological theory, and yet fail to adapt itself to the school-room by sufficiently ingenious devices. Good and bad pedagogical methods may be connected with theoretically sound psychology, but it is questionable whether they can be founded on it. Correct psychology ought to lead to correct pedagogical methods.

2. Admitting, however, that there are two distinct aspects in which to discuss methods, I will next call attention to the two obvious errors in psychology, one or the other of which is found in nearly all educational theory. It is generally conceded by thoughtful teachers that it is entirely wrong to treat the mind as though it were a mechanism; but it is quite often held that the mind must be treated as though it were an organism. This I count as the second error and the most dangerous. Living beings are organic and grow by assimilating their environment. The plant takes up inorganic matter, and, stripping off from it its old form, imposes on it the form of a vegetable cell and incorporates it into its organism. Thus the plant grows quantitatively or increases in size. The animal, too, assimilates its organic and inorganic food, stripping off its previous forms and imposing the form of animal cell upon those portions which it retains in its bodily structure as additions to its growth. The animal and plant grow by the consumption of food—that is to say organic being destroys portions of its environment, modifies them by placing on them its own form, and adds them to itself.

Mind does not grow by the consumption of its environment. Mind does not interfere with the individuality of external objects, assimilating them to itself in order to grow, like plants or animals, by accretions. Of course we may use symbols and speak figuratively, and say that the "mind must have intellectual food," "the mind must digest its food," "the mind must develop naturally." We may in such expressions symbolize truth, but the danger is that we shall take them literally and conceive the mind as an organism, having quantitative growth and decay, and having direct interaction with its environment like living being.

True psychology must set forth the fact that there are three orders of being: the inorganic, the organic, and the spiritual. Mind is spiritual, and it does not grow mechanically like an inorganic body, by adding independent ingredients to it—just as a rolling snowball grows, or a stalagmite, or a volcanic cone. Nor does it grow organically, by the assimilation to it of its environment, through the process of taking food and digesting it. Mind grows creatively by shaping *within* itself and *for* itself the essential forms of objects in space and time as well as objects of the pure intellectual world, not subject to change or vicissitude. The practical consequences of confounding the spiritual with the organic are seen (1) In various writings on physiological psychology, wherein it is taken for granted that the soul is physiological and perishable with the body; (2) In writings that hold that the most important knowledge is the knowledge that relates directly to bodily preservation; (3) In pedagogical systems that ignore literature and history and religion, and lay too much stress on natural science; and (4) In educational methods that lay too much stress on object lessons and illustrations, presupposing that the intellect depends wholly upon sense-perception. The world of sense-perception is not taken up into the mind like food, that is to say, as a positive addition to the mind. The mind perceives by the negation of objects rather than by their affirmation. For the mind dismisses the particular and special in the objects directly before it, even in the act of perceiving. It will be conceded that there is no sense-perception unless there is recognition of the object—that is to say, unless the object is classified. Recognition or classification is a reference of an object to what is general and permanent, and the omission of what is specially and exclusively here and now. If we analyze the object by scientific observation, we simply make an inventory of the characteristics that we can recognize and identify, that is to say, classify under general forms. We perceive by distinguishing the form from the matter, by distinguishing the general and permanent from the transient and variable, as Aristotle was the first to point out in his "De Anima" Book II., chapter 12, and as has been recognized by all truly acute psychologists since his time.

I will not dwell on this most important of all distinctions in educational psychology, but will merely call attention to the purpose of all object lessons, namely, the accurate definition of objects of perception. The pupil is to be taught how to discover the essential forms of objects, for a definition states the essential form. The mental image represented in the mind when we think of a definition, is always recognized as an example or illustration of the definition, and is dismissed as being only one of an infinite possible number of examples that might be classed under the definition, and yet all differ from one another by special qualities that do not belong to the general form as described in the definition. When the pupil studies the object horse and learns to define it, he recognizes that the mental image which he forms of horse has a special shape and a special color, and that such a horse would fall under the definition with others varying in shape and color, but possessing the essential characteristics named in the definition. The point I emphasize is the fact that, even in the cultivation of sense-perception, all true methods are engaged in freeing the pupil's mind from complication with the special example which is the object of the physical senses, by means of the thought of the general object. Education teaches the pupil to seize the general form of the object, and thus to know the object. Knowing is self-activity, and not nutrition, or digestion, or any sort of action that is enthralled by an environment. Science frees us from the environment by qualifying us under all circumstances to rise from the immediate objects before our senses to the permanent types of which those objects are mere examples and illustrations.

3. I turn to the pedagogical value of modern methods. It is in the field of instruction that we find the swing of a gigantic pendulum, which moves backward and forward with no apparent progress. But if we look at the hand on the dial we shall see forward progress, although there is no real progress on the part of the pendulum. This progress of the hand on the dial is the profounder habit of thinking on educational subjects which is coming into vogue by reason of the influence of annual gatherings of teachers and the wide circulation of a better class of educational periodicals, as well as the existence of a high order of professional instruction in normal schools. The movement of the pendulum of educational method has for a long time vibrated between the extremes of spontaneity and prescription, between the deadening process of too much memorizing of traditional knowledge and the equally fatal process of confining the pupil's activity to the manipulation of already familiar objects. Both methods profess to start with the known, and to go to the unknown. But the former method goes to the unknown without tracing the steps that lead up to it from the known; while the latter method starts with the known, and is so enamored with the easy process of going

hither and thither upon its familiar paths, that it continues by all sorts of ingenious devices of illustration and experiment to delay the journey into the realm of the unknown. Many educators go so far as to undertake to go over again all that part of the experience of their pupils, which has already been acquired at home before the age of schooling. "All people love to walk along the vale, with the height in view," says Goethe; but few love the toilsome ascent to the lofty summit.

4. Looking at the province of school education as a whole, one sees clearly that there are two provinces, the one intellectual and the other moral. The moral aims at the cultivation of the will power, so as to form habits of self-control and of conformity of *individual* action to the *conventional forms* of action, recognized by the community as *correct* and *proper*. Moral education is, therefore, in its very essence prescriptive. The pupil shall do this and not that; he shall subordinate himself to established forms of action. But intellectual education is most successful with methods that develop spontaneity. Arouse the mind of the pupil to think for himself; to have his own views of things; to criticise the text-book and the views of his fellow pupils and teachers. Get him to act as much as possible on lines of his own discovery. Develop his originality before all things. This is the necessity of intellectual education. Now, when pedagogical zeal is aroused on the subject of moral education for a long time, it gradually introduces into all of its methods the principle of prescription. It trains the pupil not merely into habits of conventional behavior, but it treats the intellect in the same way, and insists on the pupil receiving the wisdom of the race as a prescribed portion of knowledge not to be modified or criticised by the pupil. Religion is necessarily obliged to hold close to this form of prescription, for it deals with revelation. But when the school proceeds to teach mathematics and history and science in the same way that it teaches religion, it is evident that the pendulum has swung to the extreme of prescription, and that the intellect will not develop perfectly. Prescription is apt to form for itself a psychology based *not* on the idea of *organism*, but on a lower idea, that of *mechanism*. To it the intellect and will are machines that should perform prescribed functions.

But the opposite extreme of method, which delights so much in the spontaneity of the intellect, is apt to under-value will-training and behavior on the part of its pupils, and to neglect strict discipline. At its worst, it neglects systematic habits of study, regularity of recitations, subordination to the conventionalities of culture and refinement. Then too, it is apt to prefer the scientific activity of the mind, and to undervalue the study of literature and history, wherein the permanent forms of human nature have revealed themselves. It thinks that literature and history are too much on the side of prescription.

Inasmuch, however, as education should be conceived, as a process of helping the individual to avail himself of the labors of all his fellowmen, it follows that the true method must unite prescription and spontaneity. It must lead the pupil into the ethical habits of action prescribed by the race, but it must at the same time give him insight into the rationality of those habits, so as to preserve his spontaneity and originality. The true method must develop the critical power of thought so as to secure freedom and individuality; but on the other hand it must lead the pupil to see the rationality of the gigantic labors of the human race delivered to the present in the form of literature, history, science, and religion, and transcending in the aggregate the productions of the puny individual in the ratio that all mankind surpass one man.

I am glad to infer from the abstracts before me, that Mr. Soldan has presented a true view of psychology and an exhaustive statement of the methods founded on it. I see, too, that Mr. Hailmann has presented a complete view of the method which Frœbel, of all educators, has best understood and expounded—the method, namely, that respects both spontaneity and prescription, and which regards the soul not as a machine, nor yet as an organism, but rather, as a self-activity.

With highest respect, very truly yours,

W. T. Harris.

GEORGE P. BROWN, PH. D., EDITOR OF ILLINOIS SCHOOL JOURNAL.

Mr. President:—

I shall speak for the brief time allotted to me to that part of this topic that has been so ably discussed by Mr. Dickinson, the Objective Element in instruction. By express order of the president I have written this down. He probably intends that there shall be no going back of the returns in case an interstate pedagogical law should be enacted, but that every man shall be held to the doctrine he promulgates here, should any complications arise in the future. Whether the school-masters will be more successful than were the railroad management in making a "*new arrangement*" remains to be seen.

It is assumed that it is the purpose of the teaching process, so far as that purpose is distinctively intellectual, to bring the learner on as far as possible in the apprehension of the permanent and abiding in things; and that, in doing this, use must be made of both the object and the word. This permanent and abiding something receives different names. Science calls it the persistent. Philosophy calls it the universal. Theology calls it God. It is my aim to state some of the conditions of the problem yet unsolved, the answer to which shall show the relative power of object and word at every stage of the learner's progress, in bringing him on toward the explanation of things as he finds them in the world.

Perhaps what I shall say is so simple and evident as to be unworthy of this presence, but none will question the importance of the problem.

By the objective element I mean objects and events in the external world. I shall speak only of the relation of this element to knowledge. I have no time to notice its influence upon the culture of the feelings and the will.

By knowledge is meant the apprehension of things in their true relations to other things.

Knowledge is viewed as the process of constructing in the individual consciousness that which exists independently of it. It has, therefore, an objective and a subjective side. The objective aspect of knowledge is that which exists for every individual consciousness. It is the permanent objective reality. The subjective aspect, or element, is the process by which the individual mind reproduces this objective reality. It is the process by which it makes real for itself what is eternally real to absolute intelligence.

The world exists for each individual mind only so far as that mind reconstructs it. This reconstruction of the world is the process by which the mind comes to a knowledge of itself and of its oneness with the universal mind. It is the process of self-consciousness in its fullest meaning.

The objective reality has two aspects or elements, as it appears to the individual mind. One is that by which each thing in it is set off from others, and made a separate and distinct thing. The other is that which is common to a greater or less number of things, to a class of objects. It is that which is permanent and abiding in them and does not change with the change in their appearance.

Things, as separate and distinct from other things, are revealed to consciousness by perception. Perception individualizes things, notes their differences, and so gives manifoldness to the world. That which is permanent and abiding, the universal in things, is revealed to consciousness by the process we call thought. Thought unifies the manifold world of perception. The process of the reconstruction by the individual mind of this world of reality we have called knowledge. It is the process of identifying the individual intelligence with the universal intelligence—the mind's recognition of itself in this objective reality. It finds there only what it constructs within. So far as it reconstructs this real world it comes to be the image or reflection of God.

The discovery of the permanent and abiding in this world of objective reality reveals the fact that it is an organic world. It is a *universe*, in which each thing is dependent upon all and all upon each. Hence in each there is that by which it is identified with all, and by which the meaning or significance of it is made known. To see the true place of a thing in this organism is to explain it. The process of knowing is the process of discovering the universal element in things, and of so fitting these things together that the place and function of each in the organism shall be discerned.

Now, an adequate perception of a thing is a condition precedent to an accurate knowledge of the universal element in it. But perception reveals nothing of the real meaning of things. Through a knowledge of the universal element in things the richness, dignity and immense significance of the thing is revealed. So we see that a knowledge of both of these elements is necessary to an adequate knowledge of either. Knowledge is the apprehension of both, and in the process of acquiring it each must be studied in the light of the other.

I hope I may be pardoned for reminding you again in passing, that there is another process of mind-training by which one is led to discover and feel the beauty of this order in the universe of intelligence, and eventually to create for oneself objects more beautiful than anything in nature; and yet another process by which one is stimulated to seek to make this order prevail in oneself and the world which one creates. In both of these processes the object is as important a factor as it is in that of knowledge.

We have now come to the question, What relation has this objective element to the gaining of knowledge?

The object is the primary source of all knowledge. It is the language in which the absolute intelligence speaks to each individual consciousness. It is the thought of this absolute, universal intelligence made objective to each individual intelligence. Through perception alone, as has been said, the learner puts no meaning into this language, but the accumulated perceptions of things are the alphabet by which, by and by, the significance of things is to be spelled out.

The way in which the mind acquires this elementary knowledge of things, by first grasping them as wholes and afterwards analyzing them into their parts and attributes, has been pointed out by Mr. Dickinson, and it is no part of my purpose to traverse this ground.

The next activity in order in the process of discovering the meaning of this language of the universal intelligence is the imagination. The first and lowest phase of this is the merely mechanical one by which reproductions of perceptions are made, or other images are constructed from the parts of these. The highest form of the imagination yields products truer than nature or history.

Now, it is by way of these subjective images of things that the mind comes to the knowledge of the universal in these things. These intermediate images will be true to the degree that the perceptions of things have been adequate. It goes without saying that the individual consciousness would never come to know the common in things, were it not for these ghosts of things constructed by the imagination. Since the truthfulness of what the imagination gives depends primarily upon the accuracy and completeness of previous observations, the immense importance of the objective element in our methods of instruction is manifest.

But perception and imagination alone would not bring the learner on very far in the reconstruction of the universe.

It is a *uni-verse* because of what is the same in it, and not because of its many different things. It is toward the discovery of this that is the same, the permanent and abiding, that all objective study should lead if it is to be of any real value. The human mind can make progress in the discovery of that which is common in things only by the use of language. It is literally true that the universal is in the particular thing, but it is only on the stepping stones of words that the mind can rise to this knowledge. Words are the symbols of what the mind sees to be common in things, whether what is common be thought to be an abstract, dead attribute, or a living, active energy. In their forms words are individual, external objects; in their significance they are universals. In this respect words resemble objects of nature. A word is a creation peculiar to the human mind. The instinct to create it is irresistible. It is the nature of mind to embody itself. No idea will rest until it has made for itself a habitation. It is through words that the first faint meanings of things are expressed, and it is through the use of words having these small meanings that the deeper meanings of things are discovered. It is by means of words that the individual consciousness seeks to give expression to the universal element which the absolute intelligence has expressed in things. It must come to the apprehension of this universal by slow degrees, and by way of the small surveys of that common element which words at first symbolize.

The importance of the word as an instrument by which the explanation of the world is to be discovered is not less than is that of the object in the first beginnings of knowledge.

But what is not yet clearly seen, or, if seen, not clearly stated, is the relative power of *object* and *word* at every stage of the process, in leading the learner to the fullest apprehension of the meaning of things.

We have said that to know is to apprehend the proper place of things, and that this is possible only when the universal in them is known; that is, when things are seen to form an organized whole. The child's universe is constantly broadening. His little world is constantly growing into a more adequate reflection of the great world. The world that he projects into space approaches nearer and nearer to the world of absolute intelligence. This is because the meanings of things become fuller, because of his new discoveries of that which is persistent and abiding in them.

The doctrine has been advanced in later years that the schools shall lead the child to construct his microcosm chiefly by the use of this objective element. If the universal is in this element, and it is, why not seek to find it there by a persistent study of the object present to the senses? This might be called the pursuit of knowledge from the near end, and a reaction against a pursuit of knowledge from the far end, that prevailed when the word was considered all powerful to convey its meaning to the learner.

I have tried to point out, Mr. President, one line of reflection along which I believe that a satisfactory answer to this question may be discovered. My purpose has been to state the conditions of the problem, not to offer a solution.

J. H. HOOSE, PH. D., PRESIDENT OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CORTLAND, N. Y.

Mr. President:—

I appear in obedience to your commands. I have not been favored with the abstracts of the principal papers; hence I submit a very brief paper upon the topic itself, selecting the "Socratic Element" and the "Natural or Developing Element." Your limit of time for me, ten minutes, causes me to give in the paper little but a summary of the subjects.

I. Introductory Conceptions.

1. The psychological value of a method of teaching is measured by the form and character of the activity that is conditioned by the method.

e. g. A system of instruction may proceed so as to condition in the mind of the learner a state of activity which believes nothing that lies outside of the realm of personal experience—a state of mind that may be characterized as agnostic. As one method of treating iron produces cast-iron and another steel, so does one method of treating a faculty produce one form of power and another method another form.

2. The pedagogical value of a method of teaching is measured by the educational value of the psychological activity that is conditioned by the method; that is to say, it is estimated by the attitude of that activity toward truth and by its capability to acquire new truth.

e. g. What is the educational value of the agnostic attitude and capability, when contemplating the acquisition of a liberal, or of a technical education? What is the economic value of cast-iron as compared to that of steel?

II. The Socratic Element.

(*a.*) The Socratic method proceeds by question and answer; it is ancient in form and in use; it deals with mature minds—Socrates questioned men; its form permits a maximum amount of matter in the question, and a minimum in the answer; its purposes are (1) to reveal to a mind its own ignorance, and (2) to suggest to it at this revelation a more enlarged view—attaining these purposes by the gentle and sympathetic mode of propounding logical and searching questions, realizing that an ignorant mind is characterized by loving truth less than it does its present acquisitions; it acts upon the mind of the learner in the following manner—(1) it punctures his self-conceit (which is but another name for unconscious ignorance), (2) it reveals to him his ignorance, and (3) it lays before him (in the questions) the propositions upon which he may ascend to truth.

(*b.*) The system of procedure by question and answer that is found at the present day in our elementary schools is Socratic only in general form. The question in the school is set to the child in order to aid it to step upwards immediately in its information—the Socratic question pushes the learner downwards towards ignorance; the school question adds directly to the knowledge of the pupil—the Socratic question gives to the learner a greater consciousness of his ignorance; the school question is set to the pupil from the standpoint of the child's intelligence on this subject—the Socratic question is set from the standpoint of the subject matter that is under investigation; the school question purposes to give to the pupil more confidence in himself—the Socratic question purposes to teach the learner humility, *i. e.*, to lessen his confidence in himself; the form of the school question sets a minimum of matter in the question, requiring a maximum from the child—the Socratic form reverses this.

CONCLUSIONS.

(1.) The psychological value of the Socratic method exhibits itself in this, to wit: The form of mental activity which it confirms in the learner, in its early stages with him, is characterized by doubting, by hesitating, by timidity of self; in the later stages of the mental activities incited in the learner by the system, the character and form of the activities are noted by more confidence in self, by a wider sympathy with truth, and by a more intelligent conception of the complex relations of subject to subject; the mind has become informed and liberalized; the learner has acquired skill and acumen in debate.

(2.) The pedagogical value of the Socratic method lies in the form and nature of the psychological products wrought by the system. These products are not valuable for educational purposes, except when the advanced stages of development are reached under the system—*i. e.*, the method has educational value for the mature forms of mind.

III. The Natural or Developing Element. (Natural is not synonymous with Developing, in this expression.)

(*a.*) What is meant by the natural method of elementary culture? The answer to this question rests upon the nature of certain fundamental conceptions—*e. g.*, (1.) What is the conception of natural? (2.) What is the conception of artificial? (3.) What is the conception of acquired? (4.) What elements condition intellectual acquirements? The limits of this paper permit merely a suggestion of the nature of the investigation that must be pursued in order to answer these four questions. The scope and form of the investigation will be indicated by the following, to wit: What is the natural color of man, of the race? What is the limit of the natural intelligence of man? What is the form of religion that is natural to man? What constitutes the standard of morals that is natural to man—*i. e.*, what form of morals is natural to the race? What form of speech is natural to man? What is the natural condition in which man is found to exist—in the savage state, in the barbarous state, in the civilized state, or in the enlightened state? Is man naturally right-handed, left-handed, or both-handed? What is the natural form of domestic life—polygamous, polyandrous, or monogamous? What is the form of government that is natural to the race? What is the form of the musical instrument that is natural to man? What is the form of the natural disease to which man is subject? Where does the artificial appear in the natural man?

Enlarging the scope of inquiry, it is asked: What is the natural rapid pace of the horse—the run, the trot, the rack, the canter, or the single foot—noting that it is said the horse in his primitive state only walks and runs? Is the mammoth Clyderdale a natural or an artificial form of the horse? Is 2:10¾ the natural rate of movement of the horse when trotting—the rate made by Maud S.? Bees living at the North gather honey; removed South, they cease to collect honey; what is the natural attitude of the bee towards collecting honey? Is the peculiar excellence of the butter strain (quality) of the Jersey cow natural or artificial to cow? Is the beef strain of the short horn Durham, or the milk strain of the Holstein, natural or artificial to the race? What is the form of the natural cow—has she long horns, has she short horns, or is she a muley? What is natural in vegetable life? The primitive potato is a small ground nut or tuber—is the large potato of the garden a natural or an artificial form of the vegetable? What is the natural form or color of rose? What is the natural and what is the artificial in the form of the surface of the country—forests and swamps, or fields of grain, and land teaming with cities?

These questions point to one inevitable conclusion, to wit: That investigation reveals no elements out of which to create an intelligent conception of natural—except it be created under the notions known as capacity and form. Nature is an aggregation of capacities that exhibit themselves under forms of activity—*e. g.*, the capacity of man for music manifesting itself under the form of the violin—the capacity of electricity revealing itself under the form of light.

By method is meant the way in which an activity or a force proceeds in its purposes. Nature as she exists outside of man arrays her capacities and forms against herself (nature) as she exists in man; the history of the evolution of civilization is the history of the struggles of man's capacities against the other capacities of nature. It is safe to say that man's capacities have exhibited in these struggles remarkable altitudes of power and magnitude; that man has attained through his intellect the sublime in the intellectual and in the moral forms of human life; that man has become strong as he has met and surmounted obstacles; that he has accomplished his high purposes by a constant exertion of the maximum of his available power, and by an untiring round of repetition (drill) in those forms of mental activities in which man has ascended to mastery; and that he has acted from incitements, oftener from without, sometimes from within, yet equal to emergencies.

CONCLUSIONS.

(1.) The psychological value of the natural method is apparent in this: That the form and fiber of the activities are characterized by maturity and by strength; the forms are those which have been conditioned by men and things; the strength has been acquired by a successful exertion of the maximum of intellectual energy.

(2.) The pedagogical value of the natural method follows from the psychological nature of the product, to wit: The forms and the strength of the activities having come into being through contact with men and things as they are, and under the conditions of real life, are of great value to man to educate him into practical living; he becomes a man who is learned and powerful as a man educated in human living.

(*b.*) *The Developing Element.*

The developing method is a recent conception of a mode of teaching; it proceeds by question and answer, using objects as substantial and collateral aids and appliances; it purposes to adjust subject-matter to the capabilities of the pupil. The developing method of teaching has its genesis in a humanitarian idea—that of tenderness towards children, that of aiding them to accomplish their work in such a way that they will love their tasks and thus find in themselves the stimulus to labor; it purposes to proceed in subject-matter step by step—the standpoint of the steps being in practice the relation of part of subject to part of subject, as conceived by the teacher, rather than as perceived and comprehended by the child; it assumes that *natural* dominates as an order, rather than as a capacity.

This method is characterized often in practice by the following phases, to wit: The subject-matter set to the child is too light to tax to a maximum his capabilities; the progress through the subjects is so deliberately done that the pupil loses some of his ambition therein; so great variety of matter and forms is placed before the child that he is prevented from mastering readily those elementary powers which enable him to rise successfully in his intellectual career; coming into vogue with the evolution of teaching, this method detains the pupil's attention so long upon the material, the object, that he becomes dependent upon the presence of the object to enable him to proceed intelligently with his mental activities.

CONCLUSIONS.

(1.) The psychological value of the developing method of procedure shows itself in this: the form of mental activity that is given to it (the activity) by this method is liable to be immature owing to the lack of repetition and concentration of energy (drill); and the power of the activity is liable to be treacherous in integrity owing to the immaturity of the form.

(2.) The pedagogical value of the developing method of teaching is estimated from the nature of the psychical forms and powers. The liabilities, in practice that the system will turn out immature forms and uncertain strength, condition the educational value of the method; this value cannot be superior when contemplating a liberal and a profound education.

REV. A. E. WINSHIP.*

You who have heard all that has been said here, need no more instruction of that kind. You who do not know all that has been said, or much of it, would not learn any more if I should try to multiply wisdom of that kind.

I have no disposition to follow along the lines of wisdom that you have been following this morning. I fear I could not do it if I would; I would not if I could.

I am very glad that we have started this discussion upon this key-note. Gen. Grant, when he took charge of the army, established it as a rule from which he never swerved, that, whenever a battle was to be fought, the last thing to be done before the order to march was given, was to see that every commander of every division, had the same time that he had; the various commanders had to keep time with him.

We stand here to-day, with all the states and territories doing honor to our American school idea; and the only question is, What shall be the key-note that shall be struck? I have no time this morning to do more than to explain to you what these gentlemen have tried to tell you. They have tried to tell you that the key-note of this whole work is the study of the child's mind. You may not have understood it as they have expressed it, but that is the whole thing. From the first speaker on, there has been but one thing said here to-day, and that is, "Study the child, study the child." Do not study books alone, do not study what other people have said about it. Do not go to Greece, or Rome, or Germany, or France, or any other country. Not even to England, "you know." Nothing of that kind; but *study the child*. That is the *one* thing these gentlemen have been saying to you this morning. Now, perhaps there is not a woman here to-day from the ordinary school, not a woman from the primary schools or grammar schools of this country, who can appreciate the philosophy that has been presented by these gentlemen. But there is not a woman who teaches a class of little children, who cannot teach these men more wisdom from her experience, than they have given you out of the wealth of their knowledge; and the only word I want to say to you who have the care of these little children is, study that little boy, study that little girl! Forget, if you can, every word that has been said here this morning, but do not leave that child and the study of his mind. When you know the activities of that mind, with such a background of wisdom as you have heard to-day, then you will teach school as you never taught before.

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* Reported by a stenographer.

One word more. What is to be the key-note? Naturalness. The key-note is to be the American idea, and no other national idea. Chicago is what she is to-day because she did not care to be like Boston. If you had tried the cow-path scheme of laying out your city, where would these ten thousand teachers have found themselves to-day? We can never have Greek education in America. We can never have German education in America. We can never have English education in America. But we can have and will have American education for Americans. Let us go forward with that for our key-note. That shall be the end in view; that shall be the time-piece by which we will all set our watches as we go back to work. It shall be to study the American child in order to fit the child for American life, and not the study of the children of any other nationality, or for any other life.

Now, just a moment for illustration, and I will go right on, and be stopped when your president stops me. Let us study a boy just as we find him. Take the boy outside of the school-room. Every primary teacher knows, every father and mother knows that there is a growth, there is a developing element there, there is a necessity for food, there is a necessity for exercise. Did you ever see a boy eating? How many of you have? Do you know how he will eat? You may feed him six meals a day, and he will eat between meals; there never was a boy who would not. You can't feed him so much that he won't want more. He is not at all particular what he gets. He will be just as contented with cake as with brown bread, and be just as happy with it. But while he is doing this, while he is thus eating, he is growing, you can hardly keep his jacket and pants acquainted with each other. He grows higher than any of these gentlemen have soared this morning. He grows faster than they. But there comes in that boy's life a time when he will stop growing. He will never grow another hair's breadth in height. There is not wisdom enough on this platform even, to add anything to that boy's growth; it is over. When that growth ceases, all the elements of the boy's nature go into development, go into activity. We need development in character. He has been fed in the past for growth, and you have to feed him now for development. I take this simply as an illustration of what you will find in your children, even in the earliest years of their life. We will take them as little fellows in the school. You will find years when they will be hungry. Give the fellow a rattle with a bright red band around it. He looks at it, he rattles it, and feeds his senses with it; he plays with it, and then throws it away, and is through with it for that time. Give him a picture book, and he will go through it in very much the same way. In this way you feed his senses. You need have no fear that there will be a single moment of his life when he will not have this hunger for food or for knowledge, for much physical growth, or for the development of character.

Here the gavel of the president cut short the address.

J. M. GREENWOOD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI.

The object in questioning is twofold, namely: to plant ideas, that they may grow and yield an abundant crop; and secondly, to ascertain the quality of the crop after it is ripe. This division rests upon the assumption that knowledge cannot be transferred from one mind to another, but that ideas can be planted by one mind into another mind, and there they will grow under favorable conditions. "There is no doubt that ideas strike with a force proportionate to the vigor of their conception; they hit the mark at which they are aimed by some such mathematical law as that which guides the shell when it leaves the mouth of the cannon. The effects are various. There are tender natures, which ideas penetrate and blast to ashes; there are vigorous natures, skulls of iron, from which the thoughts and wills of other men glance off like bullets flattened as they strike a wall; others again are soft and cottony, and into them ideas sink dead, like cannon-balls that bury themselves in the earth-works of a fortification." So much then for the substratum of the subject.

The Cambridge problem was: "Given the captain's name and the year of our Lord, to determine the longitude of the ship;" and the problem assigned me by the honorable president is :"Given two brains and a question, to determine the circumstances of an idea from the Walkerian Function of the Tenth Census Report.

SOLUTION.

Put B = the brain of Professor Patient Letembee, Pull-tight Academy. Missouri; B^1 = the brain of the victim to be planted; Q = the question; I = the idea, plus its striking power.

HISTORICAL.

Away back in "the thirties," Professor Patient Letembee graduated from an Eastern college and came to Missouri, where he taught almost half a century in the famous Pull-tight Academy. His specialty was English grammar. Ten months ago he abandoned the school-room. A coroner, six men, and two doctors stood awhile around his body, and the following simple but touching announcement appeared in the morning papers:—

"The region corresponding to the motor centres of the posterior extremity of the third convolution where it abuts on the fissure of Silvius and overlaps the island of Reil, had undergone a softening process superinduced by a sudden stoppage of the natural circulation by embolic plugging." "Embolic," so a juryman ascertained, is a "doctor word," and stands for wedge. The question is narrowed to the relation existing between the Art of Questioning and Embolic Plugging.

Imagine the brain of the deceased here before us, and that it begins to expand gradually in all directions until it is three hundred feet from front to back, two hundred and eighty feet from ear to ear, and one hundred and ten feet from top to base. Within this inflated organ. late of Pull-tight Academy, take a position among the mortor centers, and the incoming and outgoing lines of communication. Upon every hand are seen parts of that complex structure through which my departed friend communicated with the world. It is like some old deserted castle, fallen into decay, and long since abandoned by its occupants. Here where the sensory nerves terminate is located the "receiving board," and upon it all external sensations strike; on the circle next, but directly connected by short lines, are the "switch boards." To these sensations are distributed and transformed into thoughts. In this deserted workshop of a human soul are all kinds of chambers, doors, hall-ways, corridors, winding passages, representing a system of net work, more closely interwoven than any submarine jungle ever conceived of by the mind of man. Yet arrested development characterizes whole sections of the professor's brain. The cortical centers, and the lines connecting them with the two systems of boards, apparently have not received a sensation or sprouted an idea for the last thirty years.

Throw a lump of putty against a wall indented with letters, and continue the process—and the putty will become a fair transcript of a portion of the wall's surface. The brain is the map of the man, and his skull is the cup that contains his measure of the universe. Man is a selfregistering yard-stick. He travels by paths already made for him. The distance to a star is so many hand or foot-lengths; the weight of a world so many units of muscular effort. Eye and ear both have their key-boards, beyond the range of which light and sound are not recorded. But how are all these measuring, weighing, seeing, hearing, feeling, thinking, and willing processes projected into consciousness,—results recorded, inferences drawn, and generalizations established? Is the brain the book-keeper of its own work? How does consciousness hold the mirror to its own face and see its own shadow there? As no one yet has set a limit to the power of steam when converted into blazing vapor, or to the power of an electric current, except by the work it can do, so also, there is no fixed boundary in transforming sensations into conscious knowledge through the medium of a healthy brain. Consciousness arises from physical changes and psychical modifications, correlates of each other. Phenomena come into consciousness through molecular changes in the brain-cells of the cortical centers; and nerve-cell degeneration or decay takes place in the direction along which the cells convey their impulses.

As a planter of ideas your attention is invited to the professor's brain. From the depths of his ganglionic workshop, he evolved "Ten Grammatical Questions," covering as he maintained, the entire subject of grammar from "A to Izard." His faith in these questions was heroic in its simplicity. With the regularity of the seasons he proposed them each year to his classes, and faltered, *never!*

Three of his questions are herewith submitted:—

1. Define noun; name three different kinds of nouns.
2. Define verb; name three different kinds of verbs.
3. Define adjective; name three different kinds of adjectives.

The other questions were like unto these in profound and mysterious simplicity. Here are germinal ideas sown broadcast, not in drills, and the earthquake shock to his mental apparatus in formulating such searching inquiries, and the consequent displacement of nerve-cells in the language centers were adequate causes for producing "embolic plugging." In fact, the blockade in the linguistic channels was as complete as if engorged by a ton of triangular ideas. Literally, he died of infertility of idea compost.

Upon the testimony of patrons whose children were under the professor's tuition, they agree that, for the last ten years, the regular pupils exhibited the most alarming symptoms of *amnesia verbale* (vulgarly, defective word—memory), and that when any of them were addressed even upon the most commonplace topics, they would wall their eyes in blank astonishment—frightful indication of incipient idiocy. Impaired brain-function is succeeded by weakened activity; and brain activity is caused in three ways: 1. External impressions on brain centers; 2. Impressions transmitted from one center to another—the thought process; 3. Voluntary recall of past impressions.

Evidently the professor steered his grammatical cargo along the darkest highway of educational traffic. His methods set dummy-lines running at cross-purposes and slow speed through the mind-channels of his pupils. A cat in a strange garret is not more out of place than such a pilot in mental engineering. It was useless to tell the professor that a steam engine is not force, but a condition for the expression of force; or that a child "is not a human machine in skin, but a theater where noble sentiments are enacted." The universe had neither life nor the expression of life when measured by his foot-rule. At no time did the idea ever make the circuit in his brain that the mind is not an empty place to be filled,—a machine to be set running in a smooth groove, or an organism to grow and to become large and powerful. To remind him that organic growth consists in the formation of new cells, and that as the cell is the unit in the organic world, so is the concept the unit in the mental world, was to speak to him in an unknown tongue. As brain power is in the direction of new, healthy cells, so mind power consists in grouping simple concepts into more general ones.

The Walkerian Function, as formulated in the Tenth Census Report, and differentiated April 11, 1887, is based upon a single cell-stump, incapable of multiplication in Boston children, but filled from root to top with a row of figures in units' column. Wherefore, in the way of cell-developers and thought startlers, the following questions are interesting, when tested by the aforesaid function:—

1. What general facts have you noticed since your birth? How many did you correlate, and why?
2. How high are the clouds? By whom discovered?
3. Explain Plutarch's theory of earthquakes, and why the gods quit speaking.
4. What value would you attach to "school-girl poetry," as bearing upon lop-sidedness in culture studies? Indicate on a scale of 100.
5. In what way would you dissipate a feeling?
6. How should railroads be managed? (Time 30 seconds; 6 credits.)
7. What three things keep the universe from tipping over? Answer not to exceed twenty words.
8. What enables us to stand erect in non-prohibition States?
9. What is the haze of the milky-way? (Colligate the facts.)
10. Classify all your innate ideas. Prove by the "rule of three."

The above specimens from eminent authorities are sufficient to convince the most skeptical that they are not emanations of one brain. For instance, the 1st, 4th, and 7th questions indicate an advanced stage of dry fomentation of the frontal lobe of the left hemisphere, with a tendency to decay in the top region of judgment; while the 2nd and 3d denote an exalted degree of emotion arising from frequent interviews with the superstitious side of our nature. The remaining ones, pertaining to business and ethical matters, show a practical acquaintance with the mainsprings of human action. Since these questions are the indices of the minds that originated them, in dealing with the questions, the originators back of the questions are now introduced. Evidently the first group of questions sprang from a mind of one dimension—length, whose minimum value is a vanishing "square point." This personage belongs to the same class with the late Professor Letembee. Since no answers were given to this group, geometric information respecting the applicants was not obtainable. However, it is probable that the extent of their activity was narrowed to a line, that is, to two points and a line connecting them. Questions projected from a single-line mind along a single-line brain to the receiving board of a single-line applicant, involve relations in trajectories that can be determined without the aid of trigonometrical functions. There are two conditions only, after the proposer has shaped his straight question, namely, to see that the victim is in line, and then to hit him.

The second group are of a more advanced order of intelligences—those of two dimensions, length and breadth. Their abode is in that region known as "flatography,"—flat bodies, flat thoughts, and flat minds. For thin beings they are capable of accomplishing many surprising feats in the plane of their activity. Thoughts in this region may assume any shape in the plane, and move in any direction in its surface. Questioning here assumes that the victim is impaled at the intersection of two straight lines, where he is held till he is thoroughly enlightened before dismissal.

The perfect questioner crashes through intellects like cannon balls through columns of infantry. He is not restricted to lines and surfaces but manœuvres in space, instantly determining the *locus* of another's mental whereabouts so as to bombard him with questions most effectively. After one blank-shot, he knows whether a victim is in the single, double, or triple dimension stage of mental development, and fires accordingly. Considered as an intellectual magazine, he is well supplied with point, line, area, and volume ammunition, with full supplies in a well organized commissary department. But he will "never fire a bear load at a snow bird." When necessary he can pass easily from one dimension to the others, to meet a pupil on his own play-ground. An adept in his department, he understands fully the folly of trying to get a line-mind to seize an area question, or of a polygonal mind to think intelligently of a third dimension body. He plants point, line, area, and volume ideas respectively, in minds ready to receive such seed. An expert in mental soil he cultivates such crops as effectually prevent disastrous plugging in cross sections of the brain channels. He knows how to take a snake by the tail without getting bit. To an area-mind he would no more think of proposing a third-dimension idea to be planted, budded, or grafted, than a Missouri Methodist would require a twenty-one year old Apache to learn the "Ten Commandments," as a first lesson in *sanitary science*, or of sowing "garden truck" around the foot of the north pole.

Back-stitching and summarizing the "Art of Questioning," may be thus epitomized:—

1. To plant and to sprout ideas in the minds of the first, second, and third dimensions.
2. To sprout ideas previously planted.
3. To avoid "embolic" and other disastrous forms of ganglionic and nerve-channel plugging.
4. To enable the pupil to help himself.

SECONDARILY.

1. To induce the pupil of the first dimension to collect his point and line-ideas well in hand—ready for warfare in a peaceable sense.
2. For the second and third-dimension pupils to arrange and to classify their concepts under appropriate headings, and to employ the knowledge they have in maintaining old positions, or in making conquests in unoccupied territory.
3. Incidentally, to enable the teacher to measure with the utmost precision the form, size, actual, and potential force of the pupil's knowledge and working power.
4. "To avoid seeing life melt into physical and chemical action,—mind into nerve-tremors,—matter into sensation, and all into a single substratum, which is neither body, soul, nor spirit, but something above and embracing all of them."

EXAMINATIONS AS TESTS FOR PROMOTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

H. S. TARBELL, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

I never listen to a speaker, who informs me that the word education is derived from the Latin word *educo*, without a feeling of resentment that he should take my time and waste my attention on commonplaces which became nauseating to me years ago, and I am about as tired of the man to whom the word examination suggests only the thought of cram and worry before the examination, strain during, and disappointment after it; who sarcastically compares an examination to pulling up the growing plant to see how its roots are developing, and in another moment speaks of the spewing out over the examiner of the undigested knowledge of the examined.

These were sharp sayings once, but never fair; and now they are neither fair, true, nor witty.

And yet how can I escape my own condemnation in treating so well-worn a theme as examinations, a theme on which every one has read to satiety, and formed opinions that permit no new thing to be good.

I can only humbly plead the difficulties of my position. Such examinations as furnish my theme are an outgrowth of the modern system of graded schools, and, like almost everything else connected with this system, have had a marvellous and, in some respects, an excessive growth. These are years for pruning.

I. The purposes of examinations as to pupils are to afford an incentive to study, to train to expression and to grasp of subjects in a comprehensive way, to influence methods of study by indicating the essentials to be remembered, by securing concentration of thought and intellectual self-knowledge and self-mastery.

II. Their purposes as to teachers are to reveal the deficiencies of the class, to furnish comprehensive reviews in character adapted to making a permanent impression on the pupil's mind, and to furnish a record to parents.

III. Their purposes as to the supervision are:

1. To indicate the ability of pupils to enter successfully upon work of a higher grade.

2. To test the faithfulness of their own work and the permanence of their acquisitions.

3. To secure a convenient uniformity of attainment in the pupils of the several classes.
4. To test the methods of teachers and determine their value.
5. To enable teachers to see their own deficiencies.
6. To cause the teachers to look at the subjects of instruction with the eyes of another, and so get a broader view.
7. To afford means of suggestion to teachers.

These are weighty purposes, and show how essential examinations are; but so powerful an instrument badly handled may do much harm. We find in practice that examinations often tend to encourage over-work and false methods of study, to develop the strong points of a pupil rather than his weak points, to encourage an excessive reliance upon the verbal memory and to study for immediate results, to furnish false standards of merit and produce unhealthy rivalries among pupils, to destroy the freedom of teachers, reduce to a dull uniformity teachers and pupils, and narrow the instruction to what is considered the effective groove.

How shall we secure the advantages and avoid the dangers connected with examinations?

Negatively, we may say, examinations should not be burdensome to teachers or pupils, and hence should not be too frequent, too long, too difficult, nor should too many be held on the same day.

An examination should not be a crisis in the pupil's course. Sharp examinations cannot make up for poor teaching. Superintendents had better instruct teachers than keep back scholars.

The questions should not be vague, nor should the form or extent of the answer be doubtful. The pupil who knows his subject should know when he has met the requirements of the examiner.

The questions should not follow a stereotyped form or fixed line of thought, so that they can be readily anticipated by those familiar with the examiner.

Positively, every set of examination questions should be made out upon a plan as definite as that of a sermon or an essay. It should be searching and difficult enough to detect superficiality.

Every question should afford ignorance and thoughtlessness a fair chance to fail, but should leave little to chance or luck.

The examination should lead the pupil to recast in his mind as a symmetrical whole some portion of what he has learned. Such gathering up and binding together one's knowledge is a beneficial effort.

There ought to be allowed time, opportunity, and encouragement for such work. Hence the examination should search for training as well as information, and should show not only how much a pupil knows but how he knows it.

Examinations may be of special service in securing the right arrangement of knowledge and effective presentation of it.

An examination should be such that the pupil, who carefully prepares himself to undertake it, will, therefore, be doing the best possible for himself.

I believe an examination should seek for outlines of thought, fundamental principles, general laws, comprehensive summaries, and not for detached facts, minute details, or special items of knowledge.

HINTS TO EXAMINERS.

To prepare a set of good examination papers requires time, and should not be left to the last moment. If the examiner is not familiar with the instruction, he should make a large list of questions from which the examined may select.

A good examiner must be a practical student of mind, and know how to adapt his questions to the advancement of his pupils, not simply in subject matter but in scope and form.

The ready means for gaining this capacity are mainly two; the first of which is to make the first draft of the questions in the school-room in the presence of the class and the work. I am supposing that the examiner is not the teacher but is listening to the recitation.

Trains of thought will be started; facilities, deficiencies, misconceptions, unfortunate tendencies will be noted.

With his mind thus awake to the actual situation, the examiner is in the best possible condition to make just the questions needed.

When the examination is over and the results of it are recorded, the teacher should go over the papers with the pupils, pointing out their errors and misconceptions, endeavoring to prevent the recurrence of similar mistakes; and equally should the examiner for his own sake go over the papers with his teachers, and in the kindest but most searching manner seek to know how each misconception of the question, how each faulty or deficient form of answer occurred. To sit down in an office or a library with text-book in hand is no way to make out examination questions.

Just what is wanted should be very clear to the examined. In daily work it is permissible and often desirable to chase down a thought in all the protean forms of words in which it can hide. Shocks to stupidity and thoughtlessness are legitimate in the recitation, but in an examination, What does he know? What can he do? are the questions, not How can he be tripped or confused?

Let the examiner answer his own questions before setting them for others, and then specify the extent and character of the answers required. "Give some account of Christopher Columbus" is not a good question for an examination, unless the precise demand is known from specification or previous understanding.

To prepare for an examination many previous examinations are required.

There should be many examinations. The harm of examinations comes from their character, and their critical nature.

The worst supervision, the most narrowing and arbitrary, the most exhausting of all things precious in a school is that of a single man in a large field, looking after many interests, and endeavoring to make himself felt in a school-room by sending out examination questions. Give him help and let him work with the teachers instead of upon them, and how much better the result.

So with examinations, the harm comes from few examinations, each determining the fate, for months, or perhaps a year, of anxious pupils. No wonder they are looked forward to with dread, and entered upon with a shudder. But make them many, let each count for no more than several recitations, let them be regarded as a special form of comprehensive recitations, and they are robbed of their terror.

A single question, daily answered at the beginning of a recitation, is a useful form of examination in higher grammar and high-school grades.

In most subjects there ought to be three stated, decidedly differing, examinations; a preliminary, a pass, and a review examination. By preliminary examination is meant certain tests of minimum but essential requirements, to be borne successfully at some suitable time before the pass examination, which is final according to usual custom.

At certain stages along the course, certain definite requirements should be made, or the pupil allowed to go no further, except in certain peculiar cases in which the pupil is not under law but under grace.

For example, in arithmetic, fair rapidity and great accuracy in fundamental rules should be secured and their possession proven, before the pupil is allowed to undertake at all the examination for promotion beyond this point; so with common fractions, so with decimals, so with percentage, so with a fair recognition of the parts of speech in ordinary relations, so with elimination in algebra, with declensions and conjugations in Latin, etc., etc. In these preliminary examinations the pupil is marked simply "passed" or "not passed." The passed pupils at the usual time take the regular examination upon which percentages are customarily given.

The character and purpose of the third or review examination may be given most clearly by an illustration. For two years past we have had at Providence, in the high school, in October, an examination on entering subjects, of the pupils admitted in September from the grammar schools and private schools of Providence and elsewhere. This examination has been upon the topics most essential to future work, and most important to be kept in mind. No notice to the pupils is given nor is any report of results made to them.

The results are not entered upon the high-school record, nor do they in any way affect the standing or reputation of the pupils; but the record merely indicates the abiding qualities of the work done in the several schools, and in what respects each appears deficient or to excel.

We have found valuable knowledge coming from these examinations. What kind of teaching secures results that will remain in the pupil's possession has become a question much considered, and those methods whose results, like a charge of electricity in a moist atmosphere, are soon dissipated, are discovered and disparaged.

Evidently it is power quite as much as knowledge that should be tested by an examination, and method quite as much as either. To secure a record of ability and good method it is most serviceable to so per cent. the several questions, that a maximum of, say ninety per cent., may be obtained by correct answers, and the examiner may express his judgment of method and power by adding from one to ten per cent. to the result of the marking of the questions, or for slovenly methods and deplorable ignorance on certain answers similarly deduct a percentage. On this plan those pupils who get a pass-mark are those worthy of advancement, while those who stand considerably higher are pupils of greater capacity and promise.

In an ordinary examination, enough simple, straightforward questions should be asked to allow a diligent but not very capable pupil to pass, and the remaining questions should be more difficult, testing the powers of the very best in the class. This saves the poorer pupils, who yet ought to be allowed to go on, from discouragement, and yet gives the brighter ones no room for conceit or contempt for the examination as too easy.

The ordinary method of setting ten questions of equal difficulty shows by higher per cent. merely greater diligence or better memory. In a subject like spelling knowledge is all that can be shown; but in most subjects talent can be indicated as well. Aside from mere memory-subjects, uniformly high per cents. in a class show drill teaching and machine examining.

To neglect examinations by a supervising authority permits many teachers to sink into indifference, affords no check to the career of hobby riders, omits one incentive sometimes needed by pupils, and deprives them of a means of self-knowledge, deprives us of a valuable means of distinguishing the effective from the ineffective, whether of teachers or of methods, and allows the higher classes of pupils to become composed of elements too diverse for collective instruction.

Let us then retain examinations as a valuable adjunct, a means not an end; but so use them as to gain the good and avoid the evil that is in them.

METHOD OF CONDUCTING EXAMINATIONS IN ORDINARY SCHOOL WORK BY THE CLASS TEACHER.

AARON GOVE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLORADO.

Examinations at best are a poor expedient. The results do never express the whole truth. Circumstances may place the candidate in a false position. In any case the measure of his knowledge of the subject in question is not exactly computed. Examinations are an expedient, and so far, the best invented. Appreciating the conditions, the examining authority considers the uncertainties. To denounce examinations, because of incompetent conduct or immature judgment on the part of the examiner, is no rational condemnation of the custom.

A candidate for entering the profession of law, medicine, theology, or teaching can demonstrate his right to seek admission only by an examination..

A pupil seeking advancement can demonstrate in a measure his proficiency by an examination. Conditions may exist in school, where a teacher may avoid a set and formal trial of the pupil, but these conditions exist only when the examination has occurred day by day for a long period of time. Even then in public schools, the teacher is deprived of a powerful instrument of defense when attacked by disappointed applicants, if no presentation of examination results can be made.

To frame questions covering a given field of study, and confined by the limits of that field, is an art requiring the highest skill of the teacher. It is the failure to do such work intelligently that often brings ridicule on ourselves.

To frame questions and set them before others for answer is not necessarily a work of dignity or propriety. To frame appropriate questions adapted to the class of persons to be examined, and at the same time intelligently to cover the given field, is a task often poorly performed.

An excellent examination test of the qualifications of the candidate for any sort of a supervisor of a school is to ask him to prepare such examination questions, for each of the eight years of elementary work in each of the branches pursued.

One who can perform such a task well has one high qualification for supervising, for the performance demonstrates a knowledge of one part of the work.

Oral examination, intelligently and fairly conducted, produces more satisfactory and truthful results than a written examination, but the hour necessary for the examination of one candidate orally, is sufficient for a hundred or more with written answers; besides, the material in our profession competent to frame questions, and conduct in the best manner an extended oral examination, is not abundant. So much written work of late years has been assigned in the school room, that the ability properly, and promptly to question is decreasing.

That part of the daily recitation that belongs to the examination of the pupil is often half-wasted in inaction. Much time is lost between the close of the answer and the beginning of the next question.

If the teacher's work in the class-room can be divided into two parts—instructing and examining—one should be done as well as the other. We are now and have been for several years under the goads and yells of half-made school-masters and educational periodicals, directing our thought and study and observation as how best to do the instructing, neglecting that large part of teaching embodied in the art of questioning.

To see to it that the pupil has appropriated the idea in hand before he leaves the class, is not and never can be the whole work of the teacher. The knowledge thus obtained will not be retained ready at call, unless the examination drill be made to form a good part of the recitation.

Papers and discussion on themes like this would have little value, had the teacher, like members of other professions, a library. I have counted in the limited reference at my command over ninety published articles on this subject, printed within ten years. Among the authors, I find the Indiana State Board, the Boston Board, Larkin Dunton, Peaslee, W. D. Henkle, S. H. White, Homer B. Sprague, and Anna C. Brackett; the two latter have written at length, and with some completeness. The expressions of these writers are along the same line.

With a class of teachers written examinations will ever be decried, because of the drudgery of the work involved in the ranking of the papers.

Examinations in our schools cannot cease. They are a component part of the school. They should be reasonable. When all are so, the better part of the profession will have no cause to condemn.

SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

GEO. A. LITTLEFIELD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEWPORT, R. I.

Abstract.

Examinations wisely conducted are a process of teaching as well as of testing. They are reviews pure and simple, with the extraordinary power added to compel attention as nothing else can. They must be made the natural outgrowth of the methods of teaching. Results, and not methods alone, must be the test in schools as in other affairs; wholesome examinations are the readiest measure of results. Good teachers must be left free to work out the required ends in their own way. Freedom and responsibility in the teacher are a cardinal element of the new education. Every subject or principle should be taught with the aid of vivid illustration, and, if possible, with the aid of visible objects. The power of ingenious illustration is an unfailing exponent of the good teacher. The bearing of instruction upon the affairs of every-day life must never be lost sight of. Grammar and high schools should keep posted in a general way upon current events. Text-books and printed questions are only aids; pupils should recite in their own language. An acquaintance with reference books is indispensable to teachers and pupils. Teachers must aim to be familiar with the whole curriculum, and not be content to remain, like the artists in the United States mints, severally ignorant of what their associates do to the precious coin as it passes through their hands.

The great reforms that are taking place are only making it an easier matter for examinations to do their legitimate work for the different studies. In reading, through the influence of supplementary matter, pupils are obtaining command of a much wider vocabulary; and it is to be hoped that the desirable elocutionary attainments are still borne well in mind. In penmanship, the good teacher must be able to sit at a conspicuous desk before the class and do with a pen the very things the pupils are asked to do. Arithmetic dwells upon innumerable concrete examples, involving small numbers and common fractions in every variety; the scholars are learning that it is of no practical value to get things pretty near right. The study of English is feeling the greatest force of the upheaval. Children are not now kept shut up all the time in the dissecting room of grammar, but are also occupied largely with the actual use of language. Text-books and library books are found to have vital

interests in common, and are made daily supplemental to each other. The story of our country embraces, in addition to a bare summary of facts, wide collateral reading, particularly of the great fundamental biographies of Franklin, Hamilton, the Adamses, Jefferson, and Webster.

The system of examinations employed in Newport, Rhode Island, is claimed to be free from the common objections, in the fact that the teacher of a pupil to be examined, the teacher of the class above to whom the pupil is to be promoted, and the superintendent has each a hand in the matter. Briefly, five influences tend to discredit examinations: First, the effeminate desire in certain quarters to exempt children from all tasks not highly agreeable; second, the dislike or inability of certain teachers to go over specified subjects in a specified time; third, the fear that examinations may check the instructor in the otherwise delightful excursions he would make laterally by way of illustration; fourth, the belief in some minds that it is hurtful to children to concentrate attention upon their studies as they do at examination time; and, fifth, that trimming spirit of the demagogue which idly fancies that the favor of teachers and doting parents can be caught by depreciating so arduous a feature of school work as examinations confessedly are. The unreasoning hostility to examinations in general, aiming, as it does, to make their very name odious, suggests the scene of "Julius Cæsar," wherein the mob tear the innocent Cinna to pieces because "his name's Cinna." The position recently taken by a well-known superintendent, who had taught school most efficiently twenty years, and had always been noted for his searching examinations, but who, now that he has become superintendent, has joined in the popular denunciation of them, calls to mind the school commissioner who, when questioned as to the expediency of corporal punishment, said, that when he was a young man, before he began to teach, he considered it inhuman, and resolved never to use it; that, later, as a teacher, he often found it a necessary and salutary measure, but that, now, being no longer a teacher, he considered it a relic of barbarism which ought never to be employed.

DISCUSSION.

C. C. ROUNDS, PH.D., PRINCIPAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PLYMOUTH, N. H.

When I entered this grand hall this morning, I came forward with as much courage as a timid and modest man like myself could feel under the circumstances, hoping to be a listener. That was a worthy hope which has not been disappointed. The president called "Time!" and the tide of philosophy commenced rolling in. I walked forward with confidence, not questioning whether I was walking on sand or solid rock. As the tide rose, I found that it was sand, and the sand was swept from under me, and I was gradually submerged, and what I had to say, and that which would have been proper enough before anybody else had said anything, must be put among the songs unsung, and the speeches unspoken. As the tide submerged me, I looked around for companions in misery. The programme gave two men, I do not know whether they are sea-sick or drowned, they are not here. And then I was confidently expecting that the man last called for was present, and that the misery might be postponed a little longer; but he is dead too!

I cannot,—I will not make the speech you are looking for; but a point or two, perhaps, may be emphasized. These points may not be worth the saying, but the fact remains that psychology and pedagogics within the last few years have grown immensely in the methods of elementary schools. I would refer to one fact. Ten years ago, if the inquiry were made by teachers, Where shall we find works on psychology, on pedagogy that will help us in our work? the question would have been a difficult one to answer. Look at the multiplication of such works in the last few years. Ten years ago, how long would an audience, packing this hall as it has been packed to-day, have listened as patiently and intently to this philosophical discussion as you have listened this morning. Something has been gained. There has been an advance in the methods of elementary culture, in the comprehension of the ground of advance. Advance is possible only in a philosophy which has been demonstrated, and which has found expression in periodicals, in books, and in speech. This is the ground for the future advance. It has been systematized with rules, partially true, partially not true. In every true thought there is a potency for good; but how many such thoughts have returned, without finding the proper soil. The saddest portions of history are the history of the causes that are lost. Many times, when thinkers came before the world, speaking to mankind the noblest thoughts, it seems as if the thought had returned void. The teachers who have moulded the thoughts of pupils have been those who have systematized their thoughts, and have kept in their minds the methods of Socrates and Bacon, of Pestalozzi and Frœbel, and of Agassiz. They did not speak of working on the individual pupil. They have formulated their thought, their methods of work, and their influence has extended beyond mere personal instruction and contact. They have reached more than the individual disciple. Those who have come after them have taught according to their kind.

The other principles and methods, those embodied in practice, have become intelligent to those who could not have comprehended the abstract system. There are those who have taken up the methods, who themselves could not understand the philosophy. They show they understand the principles by their work. Practically they understand Socrates, they understand Bacon, they understand Pestalozzi, they understand Frœbel, and they understand Agassiz, and they are doing a work which is of great worth. They go out into the world, the thought becomes organic and developed in the mind of the pupil, the thought of a pupil is formed in lines of truth, and the pupil is advanced accordingly.

This, in one aspect, is the morning side of psychology and pedagogics It is an elementary method, and why elementary ? Reforms in teaching, like all other reforms, begin at the root; still there could be no psychology, there could be no pedagogy, in the present sense of science applied to human development, until more than an individual child had been studied. This we do in the elementary school. The elementary school is the product of modern times. It is strange how long Christ's principles waited for embodiment in institutions of civilization. The little child has practically led these changes. When one was studied, the teacher was able to generalize from this and apply to the whole class. Then we have not true philosophy, we have not true method, because it comes from generalization from individuals, and such generalization fails.

I will say this in regard to those who are teachers of children: they teach the children, they teach the philosophers, and the greatest help we are receiving at the present time, is in these primary schools. These teachers, I find through the land, have been led by a little child; they have applied that parable in this kingdom of wealth of mind, of body. They go to the elementary school, not indulging in doubt, and in these schools gradually rising above real doubt to the practical application. The colleges of the present day, also, have been founded upon the thought of these great thinkers. They are working out a practical psychology, practical pedagogics, understood by all, practiced by all.

THE EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE AND RESULTS OF THE ORDINANCE OF 1787.

(The One Hundredth Anniversary of its Adoption.)

OPENING ADDRESS.

PRESIDENT W. E. SHELDON.

We are assembled to commemorate an event in our national history of the greatest significance,—the passage of the famous Ordinance of 1787 by the Continental Congress, in session in New York, just one hundred years ago to-day. It provided for the government of what was called the "North-West Territory," embracing the vast area ceded by the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia to the United States, bounded on the north by the great lakes, on the east by the lakes and the Ohio river, on the south by the Ohio river, and on the west by the Mississippi river.

This measure was introduced into Congress by Mr. Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, chairman of a committee appointed to frame the ordinance, although the provisions embraced in it had been originally suggested by Rev. Manasseh Cutler, a clergyman of that state. The measure was reported by the committee July 11, 1787, and passed its third reading on July 13, it is said, near 8 o'clock P. M., just about one hundred years ago this very hour.

This ordinance concluded with six unalterable articles of perpetual compact, which are the great corner-stones in the grand temple of American civilization. The first provided for entire religious freedom; the second secured to all the inhabitants trial by jury, the writ of habeas corpus, and the political rights and privileges enumerated in the "Bill of Rights;" the third provided for the encouragement of schools, and for good faith. justice, and humanity toward the Indians; and the sixth provided that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

Is it not eminently fitting that the National Educational Association should, convened as it is, in the great metropolis of this northwest territory, celebrate, as we do to-night, the one hundredth anniversary of this, the first and most important step of the general government to secure universal freedom and education for all its people?

In our judgment, the history of this forerunner of the great American

Constitution deserves to have its centennial widely recognized, and especially by the educators of the nation.

As we contemplate the far-reaching influence and results of this historical fact, do we fully realize the vast strides civilization has made in this stretch of years intervening between the evening of July 13, 1787, and July 13, 1887? What changes have come over the affairs of the world since then! At that time there was not a religious journal, nor even an agricultural paper, published upon the American continent, and but few of any other kind. Daniel Webster, Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, Abraham Lincoln, U. S. Grant, men who have since moulded the destiny of the nation, were yet unborn. Napoleon the First had not convulsed all Europe with his cruel wars, and the city of London, the largest and richest city of the world, with a population to-day of over four millions, had not then as many dwelling-houses as has the inland city of Chicago to-day,—a city of fifty years growth, only.

One hundred years ago, there were no railroads, no steamboats, no locomotives; no mowing, reaping, or threshing machines; no iron plows, no cook stoves, no ready-made clothing, no spring wagons; in fact there were none of the luxuries and few of the utilities that the arts and sciences have brought into common use during the last half of the nineteenth century. The intellectual activities and developments have likewise kept pace with the growth of the material interests. Institutions of learning of every grade, from the kindergarten to the university, have been established and generously fostered in every section of the land. Who of us dares to foretell what the next hundred years of our nation's history will unfold?

The first authorized settlement in the territory of the Northwest was made at Marietta, Ohio, under the encouragement of the Ordinance of 1787, by a Massachusetts company which arrived at their destination, April 2, 1788. This colony was made up largely of honorably discharged officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, with Gen. Rufus Putnam as their leader; and to show their veneration for George Washington they named the first county formed in the Northwest Territory, "Washington," and the new city they founded, "Marietta;" and to this group of heroic men is due the formative "opening out" of the extended domain to-day, combined in the great states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, with their vast wealth, high civilization, and universal education.

It is fortunate that, on this occasion, the historical bearings and educational influence and results of the Ordinance of 1787, which led to the founding of this colony at Marietta, and which "excited national interest in its very beginning," should be presented to the Association by the distinguished educator and Christian patriot of that city, whom I have now the honor to introduce,—Israel W. Andrews, LL. D., of Marietta College.

HISTORY OF THE ORDINANCE.

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS, LL.D., EX-PRESIDENT OF MARIETTA COLLEGE, OHIO.

One hundred years ago to-day the Continental Congress passed a certain law. Laws are passed every day; why give this prominence to the Ordinance of 1787? It was but a handful of men that enacted it; not one-twentieth part of our present Congress. The law seems to have been passed hastily, with but little time for consideration. The committee was appointed on Monday; they reported an ordinance on Wednesday; it was read a second time and amended on Thursday; and on Friday it was passed. Yet many meetings have been held to-day to commemorate it. So famous has it become, that it alone of all the acts of the American Congress is known simply by the year of its passage. Other laws are known by their subject matter—the Missouri Compromise, the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, the the Legal-Tender Act, the Tenure of Office Bill. But this is known simply as the Ordinance of 1787; and as such the designation is as significant to most intelligent Americans as the Declaration of Independence, or the Constitution of the United States.

Its full title is "An Ordinance for the Government of the Territory of the United States Northwest of the river Ohio." It placed under one territorial government all this region between the Ohio and the Lakes, between Pennsylvania and and the Mississippi. It was the first domain to which the United States had an undisputed title. At that time it was the entire national domain. All south and southeast of the Ohio was claimed by individual States.

Great interest had centred in this region from the beginning of the war of independence. If we should estalish our independence, where would be our Northern boundary? The question became a real one. The war over, Great Britain insisted that Canada should reach down to the Ohio. France, our ally in the war, as to boundary sided with Great Britain. So did Spain. The question was full of complications. England was negotiating treaties with the United States, France, and Spain at the same time, and all involved questions of territory. Our commissioners were hampered, too, by the action of Congress, requiring them to consult France in all their negotiations. In view of all the embarrassments under which our commissioners labored, Jay, Adams, and Franklin,—perhaps the people of the United States have never fully realized their obligation to these gentlemen,—finding at length, as they believed, that both "France and Spain intended either to secure the western country to themselves, or yield it to Great Britain for an equivalent elsewhere, determined to act for themselves, and conclude the treaty without consulting the French Court or its ministers."—*Pitkin's Political and Civil History, Vol. II., p.* 148.

But after this complicated question had been settled, and the British Cabinet had most unwillingly yielded to us what they called "the paradise of America," there was a farther question of ownership. Did this western region belong to the nation in common, or was it the property of one or more of the States? The question was answered differently by different States. Four States laid claim to it in whole or in part, while others insisted that all State claims were invalid, and that the nation as a whole was the rightful owner. There is no time here for any discussion of this question, or even for any historical statement of it. The four States in the end gave up their claims, New York leading the way, and Virginia following. Two of them, New York and Massachusetts, made their cessions without a qualification or reservation, while Virginia and Connecticut made important reservations. It is thought by many that those States that made an absolute surrender had really no valid claim, thus attributing to those which relinquished but in part a larger generosity than to those which surrendered the whole.

The treaty of peace with Great Britain having been signed, and the claiming States having given to the nation quit-claim deeds, the United States then had an undisputed title to this great Northwest. There was then what there had not been before, a public domain. The Ordinance of July 13, 1787, was a law for the government of this domain, enacted by the Continental Congress. This was the first public domain, but the Ordinance of 1787 was not the first territorial law. After the cessions by two States whose claims covered the largest areas, a plan for the temporary government of the Western Territory was reported, and after some amendments, adopted by Congress. This was in April, 1784. Its form was that of resolutions, and the Ordinance of 1787 repeals "the resolutions of the 23d of April, 1784."

This act of 1784 never went into operation. The committee that reported it consisted of Messrs. Jefferson, of Virginia, Chase, of Maryland, and Howell, of Rhode Island. As reported, it contained a clause prohibiting slavery in the territory, after 1800; but this was striken out before the plan was adopted. It provided for a division into ten States, to which were attached such fanciful names as Metsopotamia, Polypotamia, Cheronesus, Assenisipia, etc., though these were finally omitted. It contained five articles of compact, one of which was that relating to slavery. Various efforts were made to alter this plan. In March, 1785, Mr. King moved that there be referred to the committee of the whole a resolution prohibiting slavery in the territory. The motion was adopted, but there was no farther action. In April, 1786, a committee of five was appointed on the government of the Western Territory, of which Mr. Monroe was chairman. Subsequently there were changes, so that in May, 1787, the committee consisted of Johnson, Pinckney, Smith, Dane, and Henry. Different reports had been made, and on the 9th of May an ordinance was read the second time, and its third reading ordered for the next day. The ordinance which thus seemed to be on the eve of its passage, differed from the resolutions of 1784, and differed still more from that which was enacted two months later. At its second reading it provided that, for the admission of a new State into the Union, there should be required a population equal to one-thirteenth part of the citizens of the thirteen original States, according to the last preceding enumeration. This was, however, stricken out at the second reading. Had this provision gone into effect, "Ohio must have waited twenty years longer for admission; Indiana would have been received only after 1850; Illinois, only after 1860; Michigan could not have asked admission till after the census of 1880; and Wisconsin must still have remained, and hopelessly, a colonial dependence."—*Bancroft's History of the Constitution, Vol. II., p.* 104.

There was no farther progress with this ordinance. It was not read the third time and put upon its passage on the 10th of May, as had been ordered on the 9th. Two months later, the 9th of July, it was referred to a new committee, though retaining two of the former members, of which Edward Carrington, of Virginia, was chairman, and R. H. Lee, of the same State, and Mr. Kean, of South Carolina, were the other new members. Two days later, July 10th, this new committee reported. On the 12th the ordinance was read the second time, and on the 13th it was adopted.

It is only within a few years that any light has been thrown upon a subject before involved in mystery. Why was the progress of the reported ordinance suddenly stopped? How came a new ordinance, with an absolute and perpetual prohibition of slavery, to pass with the vote of every Southern State and every Southern man, when the plan of 1784 for a prospective prohibition was voted against by two of the three Virginians in Congress, and King's motion of reference a year later was opposed by Virginia and both the Carolinas? Peter Force, over forty years ago, found various public manuscripts which he published in a series of articles in the *National Intelligencer*. But the sudden passage of the Ordinance of 1787, with its slavery prohibition, was a puzzle to him. He confessed his inability to explain it. The article by Mr. W. F. Poole, of this city, in the *North American Review*, of April, 1876, was the first published clew to the solution. He speaks of having access to original and contemporary manuscripts and other written evidence, which show how this sudden action was brought about, and who was the person that inspired and controlled this action. I may add that other contemporary manuscripts have since been found, which tend to confirm the view taken by Mr. Poole.

I have said that a plan for the temporary government of the Western Territory was adopted in 1784; that various attempts had been made to amend it; that a committee appointed early in 1786 had made one or more reports; that on the 9th of May, 1787, "Congress proceeded to the second reading of the ordinance for the government of the Western Territory," and the next day was assigned for its third reading. Mr. Bancroft says: "Of a sudden the further progress of the ordinance was arrested." What arrested it? It was a memorial from a company of veterans of the Revolution to buy Western land for a settlement. It was presented by General Samuel H. Parsons, of Connecticut, one of the directors of the company.

Congress had been looking in a vague way to the sale of this Western land to reduce the public debt, but as yet not an acre had been sold. Straggling settlers would have led to complications with the Indians, and Congress had opposed that species of settlement. But here was a proposal from army officers to buy 1,500,000 acres and colonize it themselves. The proposal excited instant attention. Says Mr. Bancroft: "For vague hopes of colonization here stood a hardy band of pioneers, ready to lead the way to the rapid absorption of the domestic debt of the United States; selected from the choicest regiments of the army; capable of self-defence; the protectors of all who should follow them; enterprising and laborious; men skilled in the labors of the field, and artisans trained in the severe morality and strict orthodoxy of the New England villages of that day. All was changed. There was the same difference as between sending out recruiting officers and giving marching orders to regular corps, present with music and arms and banners. On the instant, the memorial was referred to a committee, consisting of Edward Carrington, Rufus King, Nathan Dame, James Madison, and Egbert Benson—a great committee."

This was on Wednesday, the 9th of May. On Monday, the 14th, the convention to revise the Articles of Confederation was to meet. As various members of Congress were also members of the convention, this may perhaps account for the fact that, after the 11th of May, there was no quorum in Congress, till the 4th of July. In this interval General Parsons had returned to Connecticut, and Manasseh Cutler, a clergyman from Massachusetts, another director of the company, had taken his place. On the morning of the 6th this gentleman, who had reached New York the evening before, was on the floor of the House with Colonel Carrington, the chairman of the committee on the Ohio company's memorial, to whom he had letters of introduction from Generals Parsons and Putnam. He had letters also to Grayson, who was temporary president of Congress, and to Richard H. Lee, all three of them Virginians. Three days later, the ordinance, which had been ordered to its third reading for the 10th of May, but which had been laid aside when the Ohio company's memorial had been presented, was referred to a new committee of which Edward Carrington was chairman, and Lee, of Virginia, and Kean, of South Carolina, were members. It is highly probable that the new committee was appointed by Grayson, then president *pro tempore* of Congress, at the suggestion of Cutler.

This new committee, appointed on the 9th, reported a new ordinance on the 11th, which was read a second time and amended on the 12th, and on the 13th was adopted—the great Ordinance, the centennial of whose passage we celebrate to-day. I need not repeat the eulogiums pronounced upon it by Webster and Chase and others, so often quoted. Says Mr. Poole: "The ordinance, in the breadth of its conceptions, its details, and its results, has been perhaps the most notable instance of legislation that was ever enacted by the representatives of the American people. It fixed forever the character of the immigration, and of the social, political, and educational institutions of the people who were to inhabit this imperial territory."—*North American Review, April,* 1876. Says Edward Coles, one of the early governors of this State: "It is believed that no similar measure ever received such signal and repeated proofs of the approbation of the people as this ordinance has done. To those who will trace the history of this question, it will appear marvellous, and show the profound wisdom of those who framed such an efficacious measure for our country." The good governor goes farther and says: "Contrast these evidences of approbation of the ordinance with those given to the Constitution of the United States, and it will result greatly in favor of the former."—*Read before the Historical Society of Pennsylvania,* 1856.

The latest testimonial is that of Mr. George Bancroft, the historian. In his last work, "The History of the Constitution," he gives a chapter to the "Colonial system of the United States," which begins thus: "Before the federal convention had referred its resolutions to a committee of detail, an interlude in Congress was shaping the character and destiny of the United States of America. Sublime and eventful in the history of mankind as was the result, it will not take many words to tell how it was brought about. For a time wisdom and peace and justice dwelt among men, and the great ordinance, which alone could give continuance to the Union, came in serenity and stillness. Every man that had a share in it seemed to be led by an invisible hand to do just what was wanted of him; all that was wrongfully undertaken fell to the ground to wither by the wayside; whatever was needed for the happy completion of the mighty work arrived opportunely, and just at the right moment moved into its place."

The interlude in Congress which, Mr. Bancroft says, "was shaping the character and destiny of the United States," was the application of the Ohio company for the purchase of land, and the consequent passage of the Ordinance of 1787. That company was formed in Boston, in March, 1786, in consequence of a call for a meeting issued by Generals Rufus Putnam and Benjamin Tupper. They proposed an association, with one thousand shares of one thousand dollars each in bounty warrants and public securities. They sought to buy of Congress as much land as could be paid for with this sum. There was no idea of buying land on speculation—buying it to sell again; but the shareholders, certainly the originators of the enterprise, expected to settle in the territory themselves. These men and their associates could not be indifferent to the kind of government under which they were to live in this western wilderness. They knew the general tendency to lawlessness in new countries, and they were determined to provide against it. They expected to lay the foundations of new States, and they wanted them rightly laid. Law and order, liberty and justice, morality and religion, knowledge and education, must be the controlling principles in this new world, or they could not attempt to build there new homes for themselves and their families.

The agents of the company, General Samuel H. Parsons, who presented their memorial to Congress in May, and Dr. Manasseh Cutler, who renewed the application in July, knew the men whom they represented, and the principles of government which they deemed essential. Because of the failure to secure a quorum from the 11th of May till the 4th of July, the work of negotiation devolved chiefly on Dr. Cutler. Probably no better man could have been found for this most important work. See what was done. An association of New England Revolutionary veterans desire to found a colony in the West. They want Congress to frame for them a government—a government such as they have been accustomed to; a government under which there shall be no slave labor. Remember that the prospective provision against slavery in the plan of 1784 was stricken out; all the South, including the delegates of Virginia, voting against the provision, except Jefferson. Remember that a year later, the vote of Virginia was cast against a simple motion to refer the question of slavery to a committee. Remember that, on the 10th of May, an ordinance was on the point of passage, that had not in it one word as to slavery. Yet now, in July, a Massachusetts man, a clergyman at that, secures the appointment of three new men on the ordinance committee, all Southern men, two of them Virginians. And this man, in his simplicity, as the politicians would say, expects to secure the passage of an ordinance forever forbidding slavery on the north side of the Ohio river. Simple-minded or not, what he expected came to pass. The ordinance was passed, slavery-prohibition and all, and that in a Congress having five

Southern and only three Northern States. Nor was there here any legerdemain, any skilful lobbying. It was the force of truth, presented in a wise method by a clear-headed man. The kind of ordinance these colonists desired was that which would be the best for the great States that were to grow from the germ which they planted, and Manasseh Cutler knew this, and he believed that he could make those Congressmen see it. They did see it, Mr. President; and this great Northwest, with its immense population and its marvellous prosperity, in whose metropolitan city we are met to-night, is a proof of the wisdom of Manasseh Cutler, who suggested, and of the Continental Congress, that embodied his suggestions in the immortal Ordinance of 1787.

But we must go back of the formation of the Ohio company in 1786. This idea of a colony in the West does not date from 1786. Washington knew the region west of the Alleghanies better than any of his contemporaries. During the war he had suggested to his fellow-officers of the army the possibility of making it a place of refuge in the event of defeat. And in their poverty after the war they had thought of it as a place of settlement. They had no money, scarcely any food, and were almost destitute of clothing. Col. Pickering, the quartermaster-general, writes of the army at Newburgh in the spring of 1783: "To hear the complaints of the officers and see the miserable condition of the soldiery is really affecting. It deeply penetrates my inmost soul to see men destitute of clothing, who have risked their lives like brave fellows, having large arrears of pay due them and prodigiously pinched for provisions." They had said to Congress, "We have borne all that men can bear." In their calamity they thought of the West. Col. Pickering, under date of April 7, 1783, writes: "But a new plan is in contemplation—no less than the forming of a new State westward of the Ohio.* Some of the principal officers are heartily engaged in it. About a week since the matter was set on foot, and a plan is digesting for the purpose. Enclosed is a rough draft of some propositions respecting it which are generally approved of. They are in the hands of General Huntington and General Putnam for consideration, amendment, and addition." A week later he writes: "General Putnam is warmly engaged in the newly planned settlement over the Ohio. He is very desirous of getting Hutchins' map. If possible pray forward me one." I may add, parenthetically, that General Putnam succeeded in getting Hutchins' map, with the small volume accompanying it; both of which, with abundant notes in the General's hand are in the College library at Marietta.

A petition to Congress was also drawn up and signed by a large number of officers of the army then at Newburgh, asking that the lands voted them in the way of bounty might be assigned them between the Ohio river and Lake Erie. A copy of that petition, with the names of the 285 petitioners attached, with their rank and State, I have procured from the State Department, duly certified and sealed, that it may be placed in our College archives with its companion document,—the same list of names in the hand of General Putnam. The list has never been printed till within a few weeks, in *The Ohio Historical Quarterly*.

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*It is interesting to note that five years to a day after this letter was written General Putnam and his associates began the "new State westward of the Ohio."

The petition speaks of the tract "as suitable to form a distinct government (or colony of the United States), in time to be admitted, one of the Confederate States of America." They also ask that provision may be made for a farther grant of lands, to such of the army as may wish to join the new government;[*] the grants to be on such conditions "as Congress shall judge most for the interest of the new government, and rendering it of lasting consequence to the American Empire."

This petition was given to Washington, to be conveyed by him to Congress. General Putnam also wrote a long and able letter to Washington regarding their plan of settlement. In it occurs the idea of townships six miles square, and reservations of land for the support of schools and the ministry. This was two years before passage of the land Ordinance of 1785, in which some of these provisions are found. Washington used all his influence to secure favorable action by Congress, but without avail. It will be noted how prominent is the idea of government in this petition. They expected to found new states. A good government was indispensable. Col. Pickering drew up a plan of government. It doubtless contained many of the points in our ordinance. The one as to slavery was certainly there. The language was: "The total exclusion of slavery from the State to form an essential and irrevocable part of the Constitution." This, remember, was in the spring of 1783, twelve months before the plan reported in April, 1784, by the committee of which Jefferson was chairman.

Put all these things together—the knowledge of the West these officers had from Washington and other sources; the plan of government they outlined, with the total exclusion of slavery; the prominent part in it all taken by General Rufus Putnam; the fact that he called the meeting that formed the Ohio company, and was one of its first directors—put these together, and is it not clear that they are all links in one chain? The Ordinance of 1787 was in substance the plan of government marked out in Newburgh, in 1783. Manasseh Cutler, the agent of the company, was familiar with all these previous movements, and it required but little time to embody the principles into an ordinance and secure its passage by Congress.

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[*] Of the persons named, 155 belong to the Massachusetts line, 47 to the Connecticut, 65 to the New Jersey, 34 to the New Hampshire, 13 to the Maryland, and 1 to the New York. The one from New York was Capt. John Doughty, who built Fort Harmon at the mouth of the Muskingum on the right bank, a little before the colony begun at Marietta. Of the 155 officers from Massachusetts, I find that 143 were members of the Society of the Cincinnati of that State, and sketches of them are given in their published volume. Among them I find the name of Benjamin Pierce, father of President Franklin Pierce, and that of Ebenezer Sproat, grandfather of General H. H. Sibley, of Minnesota.

We see why he went directly to Grayson and Carrington and Lee. They were military comrades of Generals Parsons and Putnam. They had unbounded confidence in Washington, and Washington had always favored the Ohio plan of colonization ; in fact, he had suggested it. The measures of 1787 were virtually those of 1783, which he had strongly urged in Congress. The directors of the Ohio company have entered upon their records their obligations to Washington in these words : "The path to a competence in this wilderness was pointed out by the Commander-in-Chief of the American army."

Lest some, to whom the name of Manasseh Cutler may be in a measure unfamiliar, may think too great prominence has been given him, let me quote the words of Dr. A. P. Peabody in the *New Englander* for April: "For diversity of good gifts, for their efficient use, and for the variety of modes of valuable service to his country and to mankind, I doubt whether Manasseh Cutler has his equal in American history. Had he distinguished himself in any one way as he did in many ways, his would have been confessedly among the greatest names of his age."

We see that the plan of government for a new Western State, outlined by officers of the army at Newburgh, in 1783, and their petition to Congress to assign them their bounty lands beyond the Ohio ; the formation of the Ohio company by the same men in 1786 ; the Ordinance of July 13, 1787 ; and the settlement by General Putnam and his associates at the mouth of the Muskingum, in 1788 were all parts of one whole, of which the settlement was the completion and the consummation.

It was fitting that the State of Ohio should invite her sister States of the original Northwest to unite with her in the celebration at Marietta, on the seventh of April next, of the centennial of that settlement. It was fitting also that the governor of Ohio should extend, as he has done, a cordial invitation to the governors of the old thirteen States to be present on that occasion, with such other representatives as those States may depute, and thus commemorate the event which was the beginning of this great Northwest, as a civilized community.

WHAT LESSONS DOES THE ORDINANCE TEACH IN REGARD TO THE FUTURE EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF OUR GOVERNMENT?

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The ordinance, whose history has just been sketched so vividly, pays a deserved tribute to schools as the main dependence for the security of a republic, whose corner-stones are intelligence and virtue.

It is my province to consider our educational policy as outlined by the spirit of this immortal ordinance.

1. It must be progressive. Such has been its past. Such must be its future. Our system must be ever new—new foliage out of the old stock. Out of the theories which have had their admirers, the fittest will survive, though it appear as a resurrection. That which has had its brief day and has disappeared like the foliage of last year reappears in new leaves supplied from its decay.

From Seneca to Frœbel, through a long line of reformers like Ascham, Milton, Locke, Fenelon, Basedow, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Jacotot, and Lancaster, the Christian era has been one of constant progress toward a point of perfection which still eludes attainment. Towards its attainment the nineteenth century has furnished a rapidly increasing number of eager workers. In spite of the hinderances by those who travel backward with eyes riveted upon the past, there are many who, with eyes looking forward, push ahead, perhaps too eagerly at times, but in the right direction. Jefferson tersely puts it into these words: "The Gothic idea that we are to look backwards instead of forwards for the improvement of the human mind, and to recur to the annals of our ancestors for what is perfect in learning * * * is worthy of bigots." But progress must be, not that of the locomotive, gathering momentum only by increased velocity, rather that of the stream, which broadens and deepens as it flows toward the sea,—its momentum and its value increased by volume even with diminished velocity. It must be not like that of the rocket, however dazzling its light, but like that of the sun, diffusing its radiance until the whole earth is embraced. The school system of the future must take all of the good things which reformers present, and thus become a composite photograph of the marked features, which, after all, are so similar as to leave little trace of individuality.

The citizen of to-day needs a better equipment than he of the past. In industrial life there has been a constant abandonment of old forms and a constant introduction of new agencies. The sickle has given place to the reaper; a self-binder has diminished the number of followers of the reaper; steam has supplemented or transplanted entirely the white wings of commerce; the palace car has relegated the Concord coach to the back-yard of some hostelry; the steady motion of the feminine foot produces more and better stitches than the most nimble fingers; the spinning-wheel of the grandmother stands unused in the garret, while a few steps back and forth of the grand-daughter multiply a hundred fold the threads most deftly spun. Still the old principle remains. It is the sickle, the vessel, the coach, the needle, the wheel, unchanged in name or in purpose, but greatly increased in capacity and power under the new development. This increase is not an inspiration of matter but of mind, which better understands and controls matter. The demand of the age is, therefore, for a quickened mind, and the "new education" must supply the quickening power. To this end it must enter new fields, make broader and better cultivation of the old,—discard old and insufficient tools, introduce new and more effective agencies and methods.

Where, do you ask, shall we find in the Ordinance of 1787 the cause of and the necessity for this enlargement of the sphere of public education? In the dedication of the soil to freedom. As Webster happily phrases it, "It impressed upon the soil itself while it was yet a wilderness, an incapacity to bear up any other than free men." With free men labor is honored. The most effective improvements in industry have had their birth upon this very soil, no longer a wilderness, but teeming with millions of thinking workers. Some of us can trace the growth from very near its inception, and we stand amazed at what God has wrought. Who of us dares forecast the future even in his dreams? Who will dare call a halt in our educational work, when less than one-fifth of our resources are as yet developed? Freedom, energy, progress! The system of schools which accepts not this inseparable trinity must go to the wall.

The five ordinance States have already a school population one-third greater than the entire population of the United States one hundred years ago. With $86,000,000 invested in school-houses, $33,000,000 of annual taxation and $40,000,000 annual expenditure; with an army of 85,000 school-teachers, instructing daily over 3,000,000 pupils; with 200,000 pupils in private schools, colleges and universities, and over 16,000 in normal schools,—there is reason to believe, at least, that these five states are in the line of progress and are set in their purpose to meet any demand which the future may make.

A beautiful vine which grows by my study window has given me a thought. Its delicate tendrils floating in the breeze touch the strings stretched for the climbing of the vine. Sensitive to the touch, they instantly coil and by spiral contraction draw the vine to its support. Other tendrils appear which by contact and coiling spread the vine, and soon the veranda will be covered with a delicate and cooling shade of green. So have I seen for more than forty years the outreaching of our educational work, the rapid growth of the vine rooted in free soil.

These five States are not alone in feeling the pulse-throbs of freedom. Though they have given to the nation such saviors as Lincoln, Grant, and Sherman, the products of free institutions, their influence has not been centred upon themselves—it has gone East, West, and South with its leaven, until the whole country has been leavened.

2. The school system of the future must maintain a leavening power. To this end it must have life in itself. No dead forms will suffice. No past success will satisfy. It must obey the call to the soul in the "Chambered Nautilus:"

> "Leave thy low-vaulted past!
> Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
> Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
> Till thou at length art free,
> Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea."

Recurring to the figure of the vine—life springs from the root. It is fed from the air; light and heat from its surroundings; moisture from the soil.

3. It must be American—American in its deepest significance—liberty-loving, liberty-promoting. As a friend to true liberty, it must encourage industry, sobriety, impartiality, which shows favor to real merit wherever found. It must inculcate love of order and respect for law. Its course must widen in the principles of government—the study of administration—the theory of politics—the resources of nature and of the people—the means of acquiring wealth and of its preservation—the questions of economy in industries and in finance—the responsibilities of office-holding with more patriotic, less personal ends in view—the sacredness of the ballot, emblem of a freeman's power and pledge of a freeman's honor. In short, the school of the future must impress upon the pupil the value of American citizenship in all political and economic relations. Intelligence is essential to good government, says the Ordinance. It must extend in the direction of honest administration, which with us daily becomes more complex through the widening of industries, the minute sub-division of labor, and the increase of a heterogeneous population. The simplicity of rural life is fast giving place to the competitions, the rivalries, and the jealousies which grow with urban life. More certain is it every day that the words of John Stuart Mill are applicable to the American people: "The province of government is to increase to the utmost the pleasures

and to diminish to the utmost the pains which men derive from each other." Social life introduces another important element into education,—the moral element; and the proper bond of this social life introduces the religious element.

4. The school of the future must emphasize character. This is but a recurrence to the principles of our fathers. The Ordinance placed morality and religion on a level with intelligence, as essential to good government. The dangerous tendency of these latter days is toward the worship of human intellect, the enthronement of human reason. This puts aside all religious sanctions and restraints. Admitting the convenience of moral lives on account of our close personal relations in society, the tendency is to sever morality and religion, to look for the fruit when the stock of the vine has been cut off at the root. Washington foresaw the country's danger when he said: "Let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion." Jefferson too, wrote: "In our early struggles for liberty, religious freedom,"—mark you! not freedom from religion, but religious freedom—"could not fail to become a primary object." Is it less important in the preservation of liberty than in the struggle for its establishment? When, if ever, was there greater need of quickening the public conscience through a sense of responsibility to a power higher than human, than now, when the court machinery of two large cities is employed in discovering the crookedness of men in high places—cities too, which have gained some reputation for the excellence of their public-school systems, in the line of intellectual training. To the formation of character the schools must address themselves, or our boasted liberties will become unbridled license, and our property and our lives will be at the mercy of the incendiary and the bomb-thrower. The words of Horace Mann are worthy of repetition in this connection, and especially in this presence: "All the powers of the mightiest nation can never prevent bad men from doing wrong—the only way to diminish the amount of wrong done is to diminish the number of bad men." This cannot be done by the prison bar or by the halter. It must be accomplished through the schools, where the life of the citizen receives its moulding, to a very important degree. "As the soul is immortal," says Socrates, "it has no other means of being freed from its evils, or any safety from it, except in becoming very good and very wise; for it carries nothing with it but its bad or good deeds, its virtues and its vices, which are commonly the consequences of the education it has received." Instruction in our duties to our God and to our fellow-men should never degenerate into the inculcation of opinions as to minor and non-essential points of belief or polity. No one questions the right of the State to enforce the positive duty of patriotism; nor is the right less sacred or the duty less pressing because

he, who is to exercise the one or to enforce the other, has certain views upon civil polity, which will make him a partisan in his acts. What patriotism is to partisanship, religion is to sectarianism. Each is the whole in its spirit and essence universally received, while the form may vary with the mood of the individual. The genius of our government forbids only the spirit of the proselyte, the trade of the partisan. It favors the life of the patriot—the influence of the man who goes forth in the catholic spirit of that religion which is drawn not from the theories of men, but from the precepts of the sacred Scriptures. "What doth the Lord require of thee but to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God?" "Pure religion and undefiled before God and the Father is this: to visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction, and to keep himself unspotted from the world."

Such a religion must become an integral part of school instruction, or the energies of this nation must be expended upon attempts to restrain bad men. The religion I would emphasize is that which recognizes man's right to freedom, man's right to rule, subject only to the "imminence of God in society." This subjection removed, I see not how the rights of man, as set forth in the first and second sections of this Ordinance, could receive their fullest exercise and obtain their assured security—"the right to unmolested exercise of his own mode of worship, conditioned only upon his being an orderly person, and the right to liberty, property, and the enforcement of private contracts." Especially will the sixth section demand this subjection, since it forbids the exercise of lordship to man over his fellow-man. The independence and the value of the human soul are recognized only where a Supreme Power is acknowledged.

5. But with all this admitted, the spirit of the school of the future must be catholic; in its literal significance, universal, general, and in the derived significance; tolerant, sedate, complaisant, but never too easily compliant. The man of catholic spirit holds his own opinions not as inferior, but as equal to those of his neighbor; not to be surrendered when challenged, but to be courteously defended as held, of right and not by sufferance.

The men who passed this Ordinance, eighteen in number (with two exceptions, men whose names do not figure much in history), representing only Atlantic States, could have had little conception of the importance of their work. They could hardly have foreseen that, in a hundred years, the States formed out of this territory would have upon the floor of Congress a delegation, more than four times as large as that which gave validity to the Ordinance.

Were they permitted to return to earth and journey in a palace-car from New York to Chicago, with but a single night upon their journey, it seems to me they would pass by the immense warehouses as they enter the city, the marts of trade, the factories, until they had first paid their respects to the assembly, whose work for many years has been upon the factors of this prosperity, brain and heart of the great Northwest—and to say: "Progress as you have begun, leaven the land, devote your energies to Americanizing all citizens; be tolerant; and as you look but a few rods from this hall into the cells of those convicted of efforts to destroy this fair structure, we bid you, in God's name, in freedom's name, in humanity's name, make good character the end of your highest efforts, and put into your schools whatever will build up a virtuous character."

EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE AND RESULTS.

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The educational influence and results of opening the territory northwest of the Ohio river to civilization may be treated in a narrower and in a broader way. The narrower treatment would embrace school lands, school laws, school systems, with all that these imply; the broader treatment would deal with the general forces and conditions that have wrought out the peculiar character of the Northwestern people, and through them have acted upon the national life. This brief paper is a mere glance at some of these general facts.

There are two colonizing periods in the history of the United States. The first saw the English race established, in the seventeenth century, on the Atlantic slope, between the Kennebec and Savannah rivers. The second saw the planting of the Anglo-American race in the Mississippi valley. This second planting began before the Revolutionary war; but its success was not assured until at Paris, in 1782, the American commissioners thwarted the purpose of the three powers to shut us up between the Appalachian mountains and the Atlantic ocean, and secured the Mississippi river as our western boundary. It is no exaggeration to say, that the immediate effect of the first planting on the Englishman was small compared with the immediate effect of the second on the Anglo-American. For example, in the period of our history that lies before the Revolution, constitutional monarchy was developed into conservative republicanism, while in the period since the Revolution, conservative republicanism has been developed into democracy. How thoroughly English the fathers of the Revolution were in political ideas and temper is conclusively shown by all their constructive political work.

In some respects the Ordinance of 1787 is the most interesting document that ever passed the doors of the Continental Congress. All the constitutions of the Revolutionary era, including particularly the national Constitution, were largely the result of compromise; but the framers of the Ordinance legislated for the wilderness, and so were not compelled to consult facts accomplished; they were free to put into the Ordinance their best ideas of what a charter of a free government should be. It will be instructive to note a single feature of their work.

It was ordained that the governor of the Territory, who was appointed by Congress, should have a freehold estate therein of one thousand acres of land; also that the secretary, the judges, and the members of the territorial council, appointed in the same way, should each have a similar estate of five hundred acres. Until a general assembly should be organized, the governor and the judges should adopt and publish such laws, civil and criminal, as they might deem necessary, choosing them from the laws of the original States. A general assembly was authorized, whenever there should be five thousand free male inhabitants in the Territory; but no man should be a member of this assembly, unless he held in his own right, in fee simple, two hundred acres of land in the Territory; and no man should be allowed to vote for a member of the assembly unless he had a freehold of fifty acres.

What havoc such rules as these would make with our legislatures and electoral bodies to-day! Their object was to confine the government to those persons who had what Englishmen call "a stake in the country." So far as the qualifications of the representative and the elector are concerned, these rules mark the average republicanism of 1787; and they still stand a land-mark, from which we may measure how far the American people have drifted on the tides of democracy in one hundred years. The interval between the constitutional monarchy of 1690 and the federal republicanism of 1790 is less than the interval between the federal republicanism of 1787 and the democracy of 1887.

Many are the causes that have democratized the American people, but the "West" is the name of all the most important of them that are peculiar to America. On the Atlantic slope men were powerfully restrained by tradition, by conservatism, by class ideas, and by European connections; but when the men of the second colonizing period had put the Alleghanies behind them, when they had once firmly fixed their feet on the vast plain of the Mississippi, they felt that they had been brought out into large place, and with the birth of that feeling, American civilization entered upon a new phase.

The West is responsible for no small number of the crude theories and vicious practices that disfigure our civilization. She perfected, if she did not invent, wild-cat banking; she crowned the "Spoils System" king of national politics; she gave birth to "Manifest Destiny." But she also contributed incomparable elements to the national life. Mention may be made of her all-abounding vitality, her inexhaustible spirit, her unconquerable courage, her largeness of view, her freedom from tradition, her unshaken faith in the destiny of the Republic, and especially in her own destiny.

Western faith in the West is best shown on a back-ground of Eastern narrowness and jealousy. That the annexation of Louisiana, in 1803, was in the line of Providence will hardly be denied by any man who believes in Providence at all; but it was vigorously opposed at the time, on the ground that it would subtract from the weight and influence of the old States, particularly New England. Josiah Quincy avowed the sentiment of great numbers of Eastern people when, in 1811, he declared on the floor of the House of Representatives, that the admission of the territory of Orleans to the Union as a State would be its dissolution; that it would free the States from their moral obligations to each other; and that it would, in that event, be the duty of some States, as it would be the right of all, definitely to prepare for a separation, amicably if they could, violently, if they must. Daniel Webster was a man too large to share the small views of some of his Eastern neighbors; but Daniel Webster said in the Senate, in 1846: "We have heard a vast deal lately of the immense value of the River Columbia and its navigation; but I will undertake to say that, for all purposes of human use, the St. John's is worth a hundred times as much as the Columbia is, or ever will be." The speech of the Revolution was continental; there were the Continental Congress, the Continental money, the Continental army; but the ideas of the Revolution were not continental. It is one of the achievements of the West to have taught the East the continental lesson.

The effect of the Mississippi Valley upon the men who have filled it; the reaction of the Valley upon the Atlantic slope; and the influence of the whole West on the national character, life, and government are themes for a volume, not for half a dozen paragraphs. That the American political system was not shattered before 1840, by the admission to it of the West, is a proof of its power and elasticity, only second to the Civil War. What a change had taken place when, in 1829, General Jackson, a Western politician and Indian fighter, ascended the chair of Washington and Adams!

The effect of the West on the great currents of political thought is a most inviting subject. For example, the last historian of New Haven says that a full revelation of the connection between the growth of a state banking system in the West, and sundry prevalent financial doctrines about the powers of Congress, are essential to a satisfactory constitutional history of the United States.

Three streams of immigration have flowed over the eastern half of the Mississippi valley; one from New England, one from the old Middle States, and one from the seaboard South. These shade into one another; but a man travelling leisurely from Lake Erie to the Gulf of Mexico, can tell when he passes from one to another, almost as readily as a sailor can tell when he passes into or out of the gulf stream.

No one of these currents is more plainly marked at its source or along its course than the one that flowed from New England; and no other has been more profoundly modified by western conditions. By limiting the field of view, we shall deepen the impression.

Nearly all the men who colonized the Western Reserve came from New-England; a majority of them, from Connecticut. In externals, these colonists reproduced New England in northeastern Ohio. There is also an undeniable continuity of intellectual and moral life. But the southern shore of Lake Erie is not the northern shore of Long Island Sound; New Connecticut is not a reproduction, and never was, of Old Connecticut.

The position of Connecticut in history is a most honorable one, quite disproportionate to her territorial area, and the numbers of her population. Far should it be from a man of Connecticut descent to speak slightingly of the commonwealth of his fathers. But the Connecticut of 1796, the year when the movement to the Reserve began, was dominated by class influences and ideas; a heavy mass of political and religious dogma rested upon society; an inveterate conservatism fettered both the actions and the thoughts of men. The church and the town were but different sides of the same thing. The town was a close corporation; and the man who did not belong to it either by birth or formal naturalization, could be a resident of it only on sufferance. The yearly inauguration of the governor is said to have been "an occasion of solemn import and unusual magnificence." Connecticut Federalism was the most iron-clad variety any where to be found, unless in Delaware. In 1804 the General Court impeached several justices of the peace, who had the temerity to attend a Jeffersonian convention in New Haven. Mechanics were accounted "vulgar," "leading men" had an extraordinary influence, and "old families" were the pride and the weakness of their respective localities. The militia captain and the deacon were local magnates. Congregationalism was an established religion; and how restive the Episcopalians, Baptists, Sandenarians, Methodists, and other dissenting bodies and men of no church were under its reign, a glance through a file of old Connecticut newspapers will show. For years the General Assembly refused to charter Episcoplian and Methodist colleges.

President Quincy paints this picture of a Sabbath morning in Andover, Massachusetts :—"The whole space before the meeting house was filled with a waiting, respectful, and expecting multitude. At the moment of service, the pastor issued from his mansion, with Bible and manuscript sermon under his arm, with his wife leaning on one arm, flanked by his negro man on his side as his wife was by her negro woman, the little negroes being distributed, according to their sex, by the side of their respective parents. Then followed every other member of the family, according to age and rank, making often, with family visitants, somewhat of a formidable procession. As soon as it appeared, the congregation, as if led by one spirit, began to move towards the door of the church; and before the procession reached it, all were in their places. As soon as the pastor entered, the whole congregation rose and stood until he was in the pulpit and his family were seated. At the close of the service, the congregation stood until he and his family had left the church. Forenoon and afternoon the same course of proceeding was had."

Of course, such magnificence as this was unusual; but the passage well marks the awful consequence with which the New England mind, in that period, invested the parson. All the conservatism of Connecticut rallied around the venerable charter of 1662, holding it as sacred, as the Trojans ever held the palladium. Some light is thrown upon the state of affairs by the fact that the party, which broke down the charter and set up the constitution of 1818, were called "The Tolerationists."

It is plain that, at the close of the last century, Connecticut had partially shelled over, while a desire to break through this shell was the motive that sent many a man and family to the West. Still the whole emigration carried much of the odd conservatism and dogma to Ohio. But these people had not been long in their new home before they began to feel the throbbings of the earlier New England; and they soon began to do things that in their old home they would never have dreamed of doing. Full fifty years ago the Western Reserve had a more definite anti-slavery character than any other equal extent of territory in the United States. More than half a century ago, men on whom the awful shadow of Yale and Harvard had fallen began, at Oberlin, the first collegiate co-education experiment tried in the world. Common schools, academies, colleges, the church, the newspaper, the debating society, and the platform stimulated the mental and moral life of the people to the utmost. Men with "new ideas" hastened to the Reserve as to a seed-bed. Men with "reforms" and "causes" to advocate found a willing audience. Later years have brought new elements; but to-day the mail clerks on the Lake Shore Railroad are compelled to quicken their motions, the moment they enter the Reserve from either east or west. The old charges of "isms" and "extravagance" cannot be wholly denied; but, on the whole, the plain people, while throwing much of the New England ballast overboard, and crowding their canvas, have held the rudder so true that they have avoided dangerous extremes. The historian of this work finds small occasion to defend them, on the ground that somewhat of folly and fanaticism always attend a people's emancipation.

It will be well to give a specific example of the broadening and liberalizing influence of the Northwest upon the national life. No better example can be presented than that of education itself. Here, as elsewhere, the West has much crudeness and shallowness to answer for. West of the Alleghanies the freshwater college and the "American university" have had an unexampled growth. Perhaps, too, the West has not always looked with sufficient reverence upon the old educational rubrics. But if she had not been free from an undue conservatism, she would never have done what she has for education, either directly at home, or, by reaction, upon the East. The best contributions of the Western States to education are these: The flexibility of their educational systems, and their adaptation to existing conditions; the extent to which they have developed the school superintendency; the prominence that they have given to the State university; the range and scope that they have given to the principle of election in higher education; the measurable adjustment of the high school to the college; the readiness with which co-education has been taken up; and the faith, energy, and enthusiasm of teachers.

We have heard a great deal about what the East has done for the West as respects education and other matters. This paper has been written in the faith that the time has come to call attention to what the West has done for the East.

THE ORDINANCE OF 1787.—*THE INFLUENCE AND EFFECTS OF ITS OPERATIONS.*

HON. THOMAS A. BANNING, OF CHICAGO.

The influence of the Ordinance of 1787 is largely to be measured by the extent to which the questions of freedom and slavery effected the institutions of this country. For more than half a century the predominating sentiments of millions of men centred around these questions. Considerations touching their treatment affected the most diverse interests, and left enduring impressions on every department of national activity and thought. All the great interests contemplated by the Ordinance were in the evolutions of time subordinated to the subjects of legislation enumerated in the sixth section—the inhibition of slavery and the rendition of fugitive slaves. A study of the effects of the Ordinance is resolved into a study of our political, educational, religious, and industrial institutions, as they affected, or were affected by, the deep and protracted struggle between the free and the slave sentiments of the country. Nothing short of this broad survey of the Ordinance will afford a comprehensive review of its beneficent operations and results.

One hundred years ago to-day, the congress of the old confederation, by the ordinance for the government of the Northwest, carved out of our possessions a vast territory, in which slavery could not be introduced or exist. The passage of this ordinance was the condemnation and the sentence of slavery. The sentiment of freedom was assured a region in which it could develop and strengthen, free from contact with slave institutions, and where, side by side with slavery, could be exhibited all the advantages of free labor. The older States in which slavery had once existed and in which it had become extinct, found their expanding sentiments as to the rights of man reinforced by the new States emerging into existence from the wilderness of the Northwest. By these wonderful accessions to her power the cause of freedom was quickened, and encouraged to become aggressive and persistent in effort to prevent the increase of slavery and to destroy its existence. The States of the Northwest became, under the operation of the ordinance, matured in the principles of liberty, and strong in the blessings of their application. They attained a breadth and strength of conviction that viewed the personal liberty of all as a right to be demanded regardless of results, rather than as an expedient, to be granted or withheld according to circumstances. Their original exemption from every taint of slavery, and their isolation from general commercial intercourse with the South largely saved them from the pervading and deadening influence of slave institutions. And so the States of the Northwest came to be recognized as the great source of the robust, permanent and aggressive free sentiment of the country. They have always been in a position to challenge the world as to their noble appreciation of the blessings of liberty, and their fearless insistence that they should be enjoyed by all, without regard to nationality, color, or condition. And without this devotion to the cause of freedom, without this hatred of human slavery, that came to characterize the Northwest Territory under the inhibition of the ordinance, and which exerted an influence in every part of the Union, it is impossible to say that slavery would not exist to-day, and that human beings would not be sold from the block in the capital of the nation, and sent on government vessels beneath our flag from Boston to the South.

In securing a condition of freedom to the Northwest Territory, the ordinance of 1787 produced a mighty moral influence that largely contributed to the preservation of the Union. Three of the border slave States were separated from the State of the Northwest by only the flow of a river. They had measured the progress and marked the prosperity that had attended their free labor and free institutions. They had learned to admire their energy and to respect their character. They had come to question the wisdom and beneficence of their continued maintenance of slavery. They had become infected along their border counties by a kindred spirit to that which dominated the old Northwest. Their sympathy with the extreme desires and aims of the South had become so diminished, that in the minds of the masses it was a question whether their interests lay with the North in its destiny of freedom, or with the South in its future of slavery. From their contact and intercourse with the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, they have become elevated by the advantage of free institutions, the force of example, the power of association, the persuasion of interest, until they began to comprehend the great truth that only in freedom and union can the foundations of national greatness be laid, with hope of security and stability. When, therefore, the disruption of the ties that for three quarters of a century had bound us together was imminent, when State after State was changing its allegiance, when the Southern Confederacy was using every means and appealing to every passion to secure the border States, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri exhibited a strong Union sentiment that opposed and prevented the secession of two of them, and gave to the government the loyal State of West Virginia. These splendid results followed the moral influence that for half a century had been flowing into and permeating the border States with the sentiments, that had come in the absence of slavery to dominate the people of the Northwest. And there is not, to-day, a representative of the new South, rising in beauty and grandeur from the ruins of the past, that does not see in a thousand circumstances deep cause for congratulation, on the position the border States were thus induced to assume.

The absence of slavery in the Northwest dignified the character of labor. No portion of its population was forced to work, in contact and on an equality with slave labor. No invidious comparisons could be drawn between the laboring whites and the laboring blacks. No wealthy and powerful oligarchy existed, interested to degrade white labor beneath that which moved to the animating touch of the slave-driver's lash. No white children grew up with the debasing consciousness that their lordly neighbors taught the dusky offspring of their slave cabins, that they might contemn, despise, and insult them with impunity, in the knowledge that no relief could be obtained in the courts or the sentiments of the community. No baleful influence oppressed any portion of the population with the thought that, in the society, the industry, the politics of the State, it was accounted of less importance than the ragged field hands of the cotton plantation. In the Northwest all labored. Society was homogeneous. The poor man met his more wealthy neighbor in church, in society, in politics, upon a plane of manly equality. He was animated by the consciousness that all the avenues to honor, to wealth, to influence, were open to him. His exertions were stimulated by the hope and knowledge that his children could attain to any distinction in the State, and that the bounds of their success need be measured by nothing less than the limits of their deserts. Whatever may become the condition of the laboring classes in the future, the equalities that here existed for a century throughout the Northwest have exerted influences on the whole country, and have indelibly impressed the character and the institutions of our government, in favor of the dignity of labor and the equality of men.

The universality and dignity of labor throughout the Northwest Territory powerfully promoted immigration. A thronging population poured in. Millions of laborers invaded the wilderness of the North and West. With amazing rapidity they cleared the forests and broke the prairies. The wild flower was uprooted, but the wheat and the maize bloomed in its stead. The rank and wasteful exuberance of nature was destroyed, but the richness of civilized life was introduced. The solitude of centuries was broken, but the sounds of labor and the shouts of industry assailed the sky. Marvellous activity prevailed. Railroads were built, cities erected, factories opened, and the thousand accompaniments of high civilization introduced. Throughout the whole Northwest such an era of progress has prevailed as has never been exhibited in any other country, or in any other period of the world's history. Nothing in the South under the slave regime was comparable to it, and nothing in other portions of our country has been equal to it. The States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin have contributed more to the useful arts and the labor-saving machinery of the world than any other equal number of States in the Union. And, as a result of the character of their people, their advantages, and their institutions, they will soon lead in agriculture, in mines, in manufactures, and in commerce. The history of the Northwest has demonstrated and forever settled in thoughtful minds, the truth that freedom and progress are indissolubly united.

In time that very feature of the Ordinance which was inserted at the demand of the South produced results, that developed the spirit of liberty and made the cold, slow natures of the North intense and tireless in their zeal for her cause. The provision for the rendition of fugitive slaves was steadily and persistently insisted on by the Southern States. On no other terms would they enact the Ordinance. But when the States of the free Northeast had grown populous and strong under the blessings of freedom, then the whole North had become infected by their spirit, and converted by the evidences of their prosperity and happiness under exemption from slavery, the practical inforcement of the fugitive slave law became impossible. As long as the right to the rendition of fugitive slaves, secured by the Ordinance, remained an abstract theory, the people thought little about it; but when the fugitive slave law required them to assist in hunting, capturing, and returning slaves, they were forced to consider a system whose practical operations brought their legal duties and their moral convictions into opposition and conflict. When the slave hunters of the South invaded New England, and seized their prey on soil hallowed by the birth of freedom; when they carried their victims from the Northwest, bleeding from self-inflicted wounds through which their spirits sought for freedom, they brought their institutions to the North and forced the North to see. Slavery ceased to be a distant thing. It became a present horror. Tolerance disappeared. Indignation was aroused. State after State enacted personal liberty bills, and sought to nullify the act of Congress in effect. And that provision of the Ordinance, which the Southern States had deemed essential to the preservation of their institutions, became the means of inflaming the North, strengthening the cause of freedom, and increasing many-fold the volume of public sentiment against the existence of slavery. Thus the worst provision of the Ordinance became a powerful ally of the best.

In modifying the character, convictions and political philosophy of the population of the Northwest, the Ordinance of 1787 deeply impressed the institutions of the country. The economic principles of the government, the theories of protection and free trade, the controversies of Congress, the character of legislation, the fate of statesmen, the existence of parties, the issues of the Rebellion, the questions of suffrage, the condition of the African race, the problems of labor, all fell within the field of its operation. Well may we claim that in the education, the industries, the politics, the religion of millions of men, the Ordinance of 1787 still exerts its power and perpetuates its history.

THE RELATION OF THE UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE, AND HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS TO THE PUBLIC SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION.

RELATIONS OF THE UNIVERSITY TO PUBLIC EDUCATION.

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I am asked to consider the Relations of the University to Public Education. For the purpose of this brief paper I shall attempt to make no sharp distinction between the university and the college.

I. My first remark is that, historically, the university has preceded and both indirectly and directly has helped build up the school. In Italy, in France, in Germany, in America, everywhere this has been the general order of growth. The idea, still sometimes encountered, that the school has come first and the university has grown out of it, and then has become too proud to assist or even to recognize its poor parent, is without foundation. It is the men, trained in universities to love and honor learning and to love and honor men, who have been most active and efficient in diffusing learning by means of lower schools.

II. It is equally true, as a historical fact, that the universities have been helped to reach their present high development by the increasing excellence of the schools. The gymnasia in Germany, the lycees in France, the high schools in the United States, by the grade of their work, largely determine what the universities in these countries can be and do. It is superfluous here to do more than call attention to the reciprocal relation of the university and the school, and their mutual dependence on each other.

III. It is obvious, therefore, that both from motives of enlightened self-interest and from broad considerations of public duty, the university should endeavor to aid the public schools in all possible ways. What are the principal methods by which it can accomplish this desirable end? I answer:

1. The university should make it manifest to the public schools that it does take a hearty interest in their welfare. It must not content itself with cherishing a vague and general interest in them. It must take pains to demonstrate this interest by words and acts. The teachers in the uni-

versity should not be indifferent to the study of the problems of the development and administration of the schools. They should not hold aloof from the meetings in which the school teachers assemble to consider the questions which are of importance to them. They should, so far as is acceptable to the school-teachers, take part in such meetings. They should have a thorough appreciation of the fact that the educational work of school and university is, when properly considered, one work, in which teachers and the pupils of all grades and ages, from the lowest to the highest class, are to co-operate, with one spirit, like the soldiers in an army.

The universities have too often been derelict in respect to this duty and privilege. The professors, deeply engaged in their round of daily duties, and often overtasked, have frequently neglected to maintain intimate relations with the schools. Consequently the latter have sometimes been led to feel that the higher institutions had little or no interest in the school work and little or no help to offer, when interest and help were both craved. Probably wrong inferences concerning the real spirit of college professors have occasionally been drawn, from their exclusive devotion to their own work; but I think they have in too many cases justly subjected themselves to criticism.

2. The university should strive to be of direct service to the schools, by doing its part in the professional training of teachers. It is not desirable that it should trench on the domain of the normal school, whose main work in this country must be to prepare teachers for the lower schools. But inasmuch as a considerable proportion of the students of the university are always looking forward to teaching as their calling in life, it should see that these have not only the general training of the college curriculum, but also the special instruction required to fit them for their work. Pedagogy should be an established course in the American university, as it is in the German. If there is any subject which may properly demand attention in our universities, it is the study of educational methods, of the science and the art of teaching. Many before me can doubtless remember how they went from college to important posts as principals of high schools, or, perhaps, superintendent of town or city schools, with no special preparation for what might be called the technical part of their work, and will recall, with feelings not of unmixed pride, the embarrassments under which they labored, until at the cost of the school or schools under their charge, and at the cost of much wear and tear to themselves, they learned what might in large part have been taught to them in advance by a suitable instructor. It is gratifying to see that, as rapidly as their means will allow, the universities, at least those in the West, are establishing chairs of pedagogy.

3. The universities may aid in invigorating our system of public edu-

cation, by throwing back responsibility on the high schools, and then confiding in them to a generous degree. They will thus, first and directly, stimulate the high schools, and so, mediately and indirectly, send the stimulating influence down through all the lower grades of schools. For nothing is better demonstrated than that a lifting power, which is responded to by the high school, is generally felt through all the schools of inferior rank. Now the most effective means yet found, by which the university can exert this lifting and inspiring power upon the high school is the establishment and maintenance under wise and prudent management of what is now known as the diploma system of receiving students from the high schools into the universities. It is nothing more nor less than an adaptation to our circumstances of the system so long in use in Germany, in the transfer of students from the gymnasium to the university. Since, as far as I know, we in Michigan were the first to introduce the method into this country, and since I am familiar with the operation of the method as we practice it in that State, I may be pardoned, I trust, for giving a brief description of our procedure, and of the advantages which, as we believe, it brings to our whole system of public education, including the university and the schools.

At the request of the school board of any city or town, the university sends a committee of its faculty, at the expense of the board, to visit the high school. This committee aims not so much to determine the attainments of individual scholars as to examine the methods of instruction practiced, to judge of the qualifications of the teachers, to observe what is the outfit of means of illustrating teaching, to ascertain how heartily the school is sustained by the public, and, in general, to judge of the organization of the school, the scope and worth of its work, and its probable prospects. On a favorable report to the faculty by the committee, the faculty vote to receive for a limited time, never longer than three years, without examination, such students as the superintendent of the school certifies to have completed all the studies required by the university, for admission to the course upon which the students propose to enter. The faculty reserve the right to terminate the relation thus established, or to make another inspection, in case there is any important change either in the corps of teachers or in the methods of instruction.

Among the advantages to the schools which our seventeen years of trial of this system has secured, the following may here be named:

(a) It has convinced the schools, the school boards, and the public that the university has a real interest in the welfare of the schools. The presence of the committee of the faculty is the most cogent proof of that interest. Not unfrequently the visit of the committee is made the occasion of a public meeting in which a representative of the university addresses the citizens on some educational theme; or if this does not happen, the committee are often invited to meet the principal teachers and prominent citizens at some social gathering. The value of such intercourse will readily be seen.

(b) The pride and interest which is thus awakened among the citizens in their own school is a source of new strength to the school. Many a tax-payer, who has been inclined to growl about the cost of the school, comes to hold it in esteem when he sees that the university cherishes it, and formally and heartily approves its work.

(c) The university by the visits of its committee can be of direct service to the teachers and to the school board. The committee can in a friendly and confidential way call the attention of teachers to errors in method or manner, and suggest remedies. Such hints, when given in the right spirit, are always thankfully received; and, if a teacher is hopelessly inefficient, and, as sometimes happens, the school board are not aware of the fact, the very delicate duty of directing the attention of the board to the fact can be faithfully discharged.

(d) The visit of the committee gives a valuable stimulus to both teachers and scholars. It stirs all of us teachers out of our ruts to have our work inspected by persons who are competent to pass judgment on it. The presence of such visitors also has a happy effect on pupils. To many a school-child, living at a distance from the university, the institution seems something remote, inaccessible. He hardly dares cherish the hope of ever reaching its walls. But the arrival in the school of a university teacher, the opportunity to confer with him, his friendly word of encouragement to those who aspire to a liberal education, determine not a few students of character and intelligence to reach the highest grade of scholarship in the school, and to push on to collegiate or university courses. The elevating influence of this ambition on the part of a few is felt through the whole school and wider, down through the schools of lower grades, for even the pupils in these schools are made more familiar with the idea that to them it is possible to push on in the road that now opens to the university itself. The university is thus brought within sight of all the school children, and distinctly invites them all to come to its open gates.

(e) The visit of the university committee to the school is of service by guarding the university faculty against the peril of asking the school to do more than it can wisely undertake. The college teachers, in their praiseworthy desire to push up the standard of their work, are constantly tempted to increase the requirements for admission more rapidly than the schools can lift the range of their instruction. There is always danger of making a gap between school work and college work. The school, if too much is asked, must either be unable to respond to the request, or must do its work superficially. While the school teachers are always as desirous as the college teachers of elevating the grade of their work, they often find that the tax-payers are not ready to support them in this effort. The college authorities do not always sufficiently appreciate this difficulty. And the visit of the committee of the faculty to the school enables them to study the conditions under which the school has to work, to see exactly how fast and how far the school can go, and what limits the university must set to its demands on the school. They thus secure harmonious co-operation. Indeed, in Michigan, so ambitious are the schools to enlarge their work, that the university has found it necessary in many cases to advise the schools in the smaller towns not to undertake so great a variety of work as they have planned, but to do thorough work of more limited range. There is rarely any difficulty in persuading the teachers to expand the work of the school as rapidly and as far as they ought.

In these ways it is practicable for the university to be of service to the public schools. Did the time allotted me permit, I could show that the establishment of the diploma relation has proved in Michigan as serviceable to the university as to the schools. It has not lowered the standard of admission, but has enabled the university, by hearty co-operation with the schools, to raise it. It has led to a much greater uniformity in the courses of preparation than formerly prevailed. It has increased the number of university students. It has kept the university in touch with the schools, and has secured a substantial unity in the educational system of Michigan. It has established a closeness of intimacy between the university teachers and the school teachers, which, to us of the university at least, has been as agreeable as it has been profitable.

It may be said that it is practicable for your State universities in the West, which have a recognized position in the State system of public instruction, to establish and maintain these close relations with the schools. But how is anything like this possible in the East, where we have no State universities, unless the agricultural colleges be so considered, and where the preparatory work for college is largely done by private schools and endowed academies. But of late years there has been a most promising movement on the part of both the preparatory schools and the colleges in New England to draw near to each other and to co-operate effectively. A common standard of admission to college has been or is likely to be needed. When this is fairly accomplished, I do not see why committees from the colleges may not divide the work of visitation of preparatory schools and make reports which can be accepted by all. That would seem to me far better than the acceptance by the colleges of the work of any student, on the general reputation of the school. For the visitation, if prudently and faithfully done, carries with it great incidental advantages both to the school and the college.

The great thing to be aimed at is such administration of the university or college, on the one hand, and of the high school and even of the common schools, on the other, that the teachers and pupils in all of them, and the public too, shall come to think of them habitually as parts of our system, as associates in one great work. They should be bound together by a common sympathy, a common interest, a common pride. There should be no gap in any part of the line, from the kindergarten and primary school to the college and the university. There should be a "touch of elbows" along the whole of this line. Thus only can we move on like an army, shoulder to shoulder, to the successful prosecution of that great warfare which we are called to wage against the powers of ignorance and darkness. If under our diversified plans of education in this country, we cannot have a formal unity of organization in our system of instruction, we may succeed in making a substantial unity or at any rate a substantial harmony in the matters of our universities and colleges to our system of public education.

THE RELATION OF THE CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.

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By express agreement I am to speak of the Christian college in its relation to our public system of instruction. The insertion of that one modifying word gives a specific character to my paper.

1. By a Christian college I mean an institution of full collegiate grade —inferior to none in its standard of scholarship,—yet aiming directly and avowedly to promote those moral and religious ends which christianity sets forth as the highest. It is not denominational or sectarian, either in its methods or in its teachings. It is not, in any narrow or technical sense, theological; but it is broad, thorough, reverent, devout. It is free from pietistic cant, but its atmosphere has the tone and tonic of an earnest spiritual life. It regards the moral faculties as susceptible of culture, and as needing it no less than the intellectual faculties, and does not fail to provide the means for such culture.

Such an institution, although technically distinct from the educational system under immediate State control, sustains practically, by virtue of its moral aim and its effective work, a relation to public education of the very highest importance. That relation is, in a word, complemental. The Christian college is never antagonistic to true education, whether academic or professional, whether furnished by the State, or by a private individual or corporation. It rejoices in all that is done or can be done for the culture of mind or the elevation of society. Yet it has a distinctive educational work of its own to do, a work which is imperatively needed, and which, as society is constituted, will, without it, remain undone.

2. In setting forth that work we need to state again the scope and end of education. Viewed in any comprehensive way, education must relate to the whole man. It must include a well-trained body, a thoroughly disciplined mind, and a symmetrically developed moral nature.

The limits of my paper exclude reference to physical culture, although that is so important. Education, in the sense in which I now use the term in its psychological sphere, means the development of manhood and of womanhood. It is the complete and harmonious culture of all the powers of the soul, in their unity. It is never narrow or partial,—some powers abnormally stimulated and others dwarfed by neglect,—but proportionate and symmetrical, according to some definite standard of development, and some clearly perceived ideal.

What is the end in view of a true education? One word replies: Character. President Porter has concisely expressed it: "Character before culture, culture before knowledge." The grand aim of every great teacher, from Socrates to Hopkins, has been the building of character. Dr. Arnold was satisfied only when he had secured in his pupils what he described as "the inquiring love of truth going along with the divine love of goodness," thus including both head-culture and heart-culture, which must always be the essential elements of a noble manhood. There can be no greater mistake than to esteem that a true education which sharpens one faculty while it dulls another; which puts a keen edge on the intellect while it blunts the moral sensibilities; which makes a man keen, quick to discern, brilliant it may be in his power of thought, but cold and selfish, dwarfed in his moral nature, with little heart and no conscience.

When teachers shall come to recognize this fundamental truth, that the ultimate object of all true education is character, that there is wrapped up in that word the aim of all culture, all that makes this life worth the living; when they discern that it is their privilege to be every hour unfolding and enriching life for every soul brought under their teaching, and not simply for its three score years and ten, but for the endless cycles of spiritual existence, then their work can never seem to them any routine drudgery,—irksome toil for needed money,—but their calling will seem a sacred profession, worthy of the noblest powers and of the highest conse cration. It is said of that great teacher of men who has just been borne to his rest at Williamstown, that in his teaching "truth was never a thing apart from life, philosophy was never a mere speculation, knowledge was never a simple acquirement. Life itself,—the struggle of the individual man after truth and strength,—was never out of his thought; nor was the issuance of knowledge and truth in character ever absent from his instruction." Dr. Hopkins understood the true aim of education, the dignity of its work and the secret of its power.

3. With such an end in view, what are the best means to be used in securing a true education? Evidently those best adapted to produce that mental and moral culture upon which character depends. Instrumentalities which do not secure this, whatever they may be, or however admirable they may be fitted for other ends, come short of the requirement. But this is the distinctive end and object of the Christian college. It has no other mission. It was born of this idea.

It is well known that in our early history, the higher institutions of learning, as well as the common schools, were founded upon a religious basis. With our New England fathers education and religion went hand in hand. In their esteem, these were the guardians of society, the safeguard of the State, and so vitally necessary, that they did not dare to wait until worldly prosperity should make the building of a college an easy task, but within sixteen years after landing on Plymouth Rock, though in great weakness and poverty, they founded Harvard College, as her motto ever declares, *Christo et ecclesiæ.* Yale, too, was founded by a few ministers moved by the same religious impulse, and the oldest college in Virginia was chartered, as the record states, "that the youth of Virginia might be piously educated." No page of American history is more heroic than that which records the sacrifices made, the Christian consecration and faith shown in founding our early colleges. It was these Christian colleges which made New England what she was so long, the brain and the conscience of the nation, shaping all our institutions and moulding our national civilization. One historian does not hesitate to say that "a failure to plant and endow Harvard College for twenty-five years, would have so stunted and paralyzed the social progress of Massachusetts, as to have altered essentially the whole course of events bearing on our national history, in which Massachusetts had any part." History teaches no lesson more plainly than this, that whoever would control the character of a people must control their education. In Austria at one time, the proportion of Papists to Protestants was only one to twenty-nine, but in one generation Austria was lost to the reformation, and how? Simply by allowing the Jesuits to obtain control of the universities. So it was also in Poland. In the same way the Jesuits recovered to the papacy the larger part of Europe, when it seemed lost to them forever. They seized upon the higher departments of education, both public and private. At one period they had six hundred colleges under their control. They were not so much a preaching order as a teaching order; and by educating minds they governed communities and nations. Such facts cannot be disregarded. If we would control society, we must control higher education. If a broad and liberal Christianity,—the true source of all permanent civilization,—is to maintain her power in our land, we must never forget that of all possible agencies for elevating, purifying and moulding society, the Christian college is one of the most potent. Nothing can take its place. The necessity of building up in our land such Christian institutions, to save it, not from ignorance, but from immorality and irreligion, is imperative.

This necessity is made the more apparent when we consider what is too generally conceded as a fact, that our public-school system must be kept religiously colorless. The attitude of the State toward public education of every grade, must be, it is said, that of silence, or indifference toward religion. The rights of every tax-payer, atheist as well as theist, infidel as well as Christian, must be respected, and these rights, it is claimed, require that not only the Bible but all religious teaching should be rigidly excluded. This rests upon an assumption which is often readily granted, but which I believe to be false, that morals and religion can be divorced;

that there is in the nature of mind and in the constitution of society, no necessary connection between them. We forget the truth of Daniel Webster's utterance before the Supreme Court in the Girard will case: "By the Christian world throughout its broadest extent it has been, and is held as a fundamental truth, that religion is the only basis of morals, and that moral instruction, not resting on this basis is only building upon sand."

Those who object to religious teaching in schools, do so, I believe, because they fail to distinguish between religion and sectarianism. In their view, to be religious is to be narrow, petty, denominational. Hence they affirm that "the complete secularization of our schools is an essential factor in the present fairest civilization the world has ever known." In their judgment society would gain vastly by relegating to the State all education,—higher as well as lower,—and eliminating from it every particle of religious influence. Some of them affirm that Christian colleges should have no place, being not only unnecessary and unprofitable, but positively mischievous. If this is true, then certainly these institutians have no moral right to exist. Our fathers made a fearful mistake. The good which we supposed to to be accomplished is far outweighed by the evil wrought. If this is true, then the ideal education must have absolutely nothing to do with the moral or spiritual nature. To be complete it must ignore the highest part of man, and develop only the intellectual. If this is true, we must set aside as false the old axiom, the whole of a thing is greater than a part, and declare education symmetrical only when it is partially finished, only when it is imperfect.

The truth does not lie in this direction. The ideal is, and must be, a perfect manhood. This can be attained only through a development that includes culture of the heart as well as culture of the head; an education both broad and Christian, whose atmosphere is at once clear for intellectual vision, and bracing for the moral sense; an education which will help one not only to perceive the truth, but also, what is infinitely better, to live the truth. If the student is merely informed as to facts, while he is not trained to love and obey the right, the highest culture will not restrain from the deepest depravity, the most finished scholarship may be the strongest ally of crime. History, ancient and modern, is on this point clear and decisive. Exclude religion from any community, and you will soon find that you have excluded morals. Exclude religion from education, and you will leave no foundation on which to build a moral character. The conclusion is irresistible. That education which is not broad and thorough, reverent in its spirit and loyal to all truth, religious as well as scientific truth, seeking a complete and symmetrical development of the whole man, cannot secure for the individual that culture without which he will certainly fail to make the most of himself, and so the most of life; it cannot do for society what society everywhere and of every grade most needs to have done, nor can it do for this present age what our Christian civilization so imperatively demands. It cannot be too often affirmed that there is no education deserving to be called complete, which ignores our moral nature; and there is no development worthy of effort, which is not a development of right character.

If we are to continue a Christian nation, we have need of institutions for the higher education, not only founded on the Christian religion, but also, in their daily administration, in constant sympathy with it. A Christian college, thus administered, is a conserver of every noble interest, private and public. It helps to enlarge the individual in every department of his being, steadily lifting him toward the ideal character, and through him, elevating society and blessing the nation and the world. It never dwarfs the soul, or fetters it with religious formulas, or makes it pronounce the shibboleth of any sect, but it meets that sentiment within us which demands a God, and will not be satisfied with any philosophy which ignores God, or with any education which leaves untouched, or only blights our spiritual nature. It recognizes and meets the necessity for religious culture. Philosophy which gives light but no heat, which satisfies the intellect but does not constrain the will, can quicken no life to moral fruitfulness. Neither ancients nor moderns, neither Greeks nor pagans, have been moved by any abstract reasonings however profound. Abstract being is no being at all, as a force in human history or in human life. Why is it that, as a regenerating moral power in the world, Christianity so surpasses all other systems? Because it is so much more than a philosophy; it is a religion. It speaks not only to the intellect but to the heart. It bids us not only worship, but obey. Its grand superiority as a system of practical ethics is found in this, that it furnishes a religious basis for its scheme of morals, and secures by the highest possible sanctions the practical fruits of righteous living. It is not that the essential principles of ethics have been changed since the advent of Christianity for they are as immutable as the laws of measure or of magnitude; but Christianity adapts itself most perfectly to man's mental and moral nature. It presents a perfect standard of morality, not merely in theory but in the example of a living man, our Lord Jesus Christ; and suggesting the noblest emotions, while it speaks in the tone of a righteous authority, it shapes the life after its divinely perfect ideal. Its consummate power is felt when it thus brings the human soul into a living fellowship with the divine, and then it becomes the mightiest moral force, the grandest uplifting power the human heart can ever know.

No education can possibly be complete which does not bring into the daily life this moral power, continually transforming and perfecting the character by moulding it after the perfect pattern.

This is the education which the Christian college aims to give, and which the world surely needs. Such a college seeks earnestly and constantly to send forth young men and young women educated after this high standard—examples of true manhood and womanhood—to bless the world, in whatever sphere they move, by the power of their own noble character. Becoming teachers in our public schools and in our higher institutions of learning, they are ever stimulated by the truth that a teacher's personal character is an educating power far mightier than any text-book and infinitely more lasting in its effects. As citizens, they aim to administer our public-school system according to those principles of Christian patriotism which lie at the foundation of our national prosperity. Especially do they seek for our children the best instructors; remembering that a wise parent will be more solicitous about the moral character of his son's teacher than about the range of his son's studies. By every method of influence, private and public, as teachers, school officers, and members of society, they strive to elevate the tone and character of our public system of instruction.

Thus it is that by its high standard, its thorough methods, its earnest spirit, and its worthy fruitage, the Christian college affords a constant and a needed stimulus to all other educational institutions, from the district school to the university. It is an object-lesson of the highest value, setting forth in a most practical and effective way, even though often imperfectly, the true ideal of education.

Surely then, the Christian college has a relation to our public system of instruction, in no sense and in no degree antagonistic, but in every sense and in every way most helpful. It is an ally to be gratefully recognized and constantly strengthened.

RELATION OF HIGHER TECHNOLOGICAL SCHOOLS TO THE PUBLIC SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION.

REV. ISAAC I. HOPKINS, D.D., PRESIDENT OF EMORY COLLEGE, GEORGIA.

Some form of a public system of instruction, and in all probability, that now developing and outlined in the existing order of things among us, will be a feature of American civilization henceforth. Nothing better ever existed for us, and the objective point in our deliberations should be growth and perfection, not revolution. Technical schools of lower and higher grade have come to stay. They meet a demand which is voiced by well-nigh universal public sentiment; they are sanctioned by the soundest philosophy; and they have demonstrated their right to exist.

Comparatively little difficulty is found in adjusting these two questions in sociology on their lower lines. Concentrated attention is throwing more and more light on each. Hearty and co-operative effort amongst those who are most intelligently concerned is pushing methods to results. The problem of relation in the elementary forms is being solved. The difficulty in the higher relation is confessedly great. The public seem to be in utter confusion while at the same time they good naturedly accord their sympathy and give their confidence to the general idea of direct teaching for the highest technical skill. Educators are slow to speak, and seem to look on with the vague hope that "something will turn up." Meanwhile time is passing, and boys are growing into manhood and girls into womanhood, with all the disabilities which are incident to an undefined system, and the problem of relation is pressing for a solution. As helping such solution I submit the following general considerations. First as to

TERMINOLOGY AND IDEAS.

The confusion of our terminology as between professions, callings, business, trades, etc., is not a confusion of words merely. It is essentially a confusion of ideas. We of the present time have found a terminology ready to our hand, and have accepted it with all its inconsistencies and imperfections. It may have had a normal origin, that is, as the outcome and expression of an idea or ideas; but the idea has reacted abnormally, and now gives undue shape to the terminology.

Nobody has as yet furnished us a sliding scale by which the dignity of a vocation may be measured. If such a scale exist at all, it will not be discovered in a reference to things external and incidental. If the classifications should proceed on the basis of importance and usefulness, the confusion is equally great. Equally futile would be any effort to classify on a basis of skill as evidencing intelligence. Any classification which exalts one to the exclusion or subordination of another vocation is irrational and misleading. It were better to dismiss all such conceptions and recognize the common philosophy which underlies the voicing of human thought, whether that voicing be in the uttered word or the created thing.

TECHNIC.

As there is a metaphysical side to all vocations, a side which involves knowledge and philosophy, so there is a technical side involving art and expression. Fundamentally education involves two things, *nature-culture and language-culture.* Two streams are pouring through every human mind: one by the avenues of knowledge, and bringing treasures into the mind; the other by the functions of expression, and carrying gifts to other minds. Temperament and talent taken into the account, how simple the conception that the best office of education is to give the best culture possible to the individual, both as to the material he receives and the method of its expression to others. The technical or art side of the engineer differs from the technical or art side of the philosopher, in form, not in essence.

PREEMPTION CLAIMS AND COLOR OF TITLE.

The exalted claims of theology, law, and medicine, to be considered learned or liberal professions, are traceable to mediæval conceptions of education. The old or traditional scheme of education had in view only such subjects of study as were furnished by the civilizations of Greece and Rome. The system itself was intensely practical, and as such is full of suggestiveness. It moulded the mind by thought and language thoroughly adapted to its ends, and so exalted into prominence those things which constituted or were allied to its subjects of knowledge. Until of late the form has remained, while the original inspiration has long since passed away. ***Mutatis mutandis.*** Other professions have become liberal, because intelligent. The profession of teaching has broken into the exclusive circle. The engineer, civil, mechanical, and mining; the chemist; the agriculturist; the journalist; the writer; the scientific expert; have each and all demanded that cause be shown why they too may not share such high dignity and emolument. The public is likely to give, if it has not already given, a verdict in their favor.

CLUE TO THE TRUTH.

It is not a matter of name but of fact whether a man is entitled to be regarded as belonging to the highest class of skilled workers. The trained brain and skilled hand, insight into facts and power to use them, these test the claim set up by the profession. It matters nothing in this inquiry whether the objective point be the healing of the sick body, the construction of an elaborate machine, the settlement of a nice point in law, or the care of souls; the forces intellectual and educational are the same, and the claim must be settled by the wisdom which is profitable to direct.

THE IRREVOCABLE.

Granting the truth claimed in these statements, there is intimated, if not declared, the true policy of education in the higher technological lines. We have to deal not with hypotheses, but with facts and philosophy. We have to yield to the inevitable, treat the question not as one we would carefully avoid, but as involving an issue we gladly accept. Time and necessity and the order of things have done for us what we were not wise enough to anticipate and do for ourselves. We have had thrust upon us what we can not and ought not to try to throw off. The day for education by the classics and philosophy exclusively has passed, and gone forever. It lingered too long. The call now to be heeded is to broaden and broaden, until we take in every phase of mind and meet every want of man.

THE NEW CURRICULUM—DOES IT EDUCATE AND HOW?

A curriculum of college or university grade, which leaves out the classics or makes them elective has passed the experimental stage. There is really danger in the other direction—the danger of making education mechanical rather than creative. Mind is not a machine, nor a canvas, nor an organism, nor any such material thing. All methods fail of the highest results when pursued for themselves. Any method almost is legitimate and effective when used by the true educator, rigidly holding the means as subsidiary to the end. The curriculum which involves and emphasizes technics, and uses these as important adjuncts to its work *does* educate. As embodied by our institutions of technology of high grade, the curriculum comprehending mathematics, language studies, science, and philosophy, in addition to technical training offers every element of mind its proper stimulus and appropriate food. Memory, observation, imagination, reason, judgment, the sensibilities, the will, are each and all brought into exercise and laid under tribute; and the outcome is education, or if you like it better, culture.

THE STATE IN EDUCATION.

The question suggested here belongs as much to the publicist and statesman as to the educator, not more. A correct conception, however, of its educational side must enter into and shape national and state policies of education. Briefly stated the principles involved are the following:

INDIVIDUALITY OF NATIONS.

There is such a thing as individuality of the nation. Many things enter into it. It is a sum of forces. The most potent of these forces are the dominant forms of religion and the national system of education. They are self-perpetuating and re-active. The processes of growth and individualization are none the less powerful because silent.

OUR MISSION.

The mission of the American people in the work of education is as unique as is its political life. The watch-word of the one is liberty, that of the other is manhood. We do not need, we cannot afford to train and educate for a citizenship and civilization other than and diverse from our own. The ultimate in our system should be, and with the most thoughtful is a nation made free by the truth.

COMPOSITE VS. AMERICAN.

It is the boast of some institutions of high grade among us that they have been fashioned after the English university, or the German university, or the Russian system. Others have sought to combine the characteristics of many, and so secure a composite system. It is wise to learn from others, but slavish copying is not learning. The demand is for a system distinctively American, one in harmony with our traditions, our history, our democratic republicanism, our growing power, our distinctive civilization. An American system ought to be and is as possible and practicable as a German or a Russian system, and this not in the elementary and high school, alone, but in the college, the university, and the allied technical schools.

THE SOCIAL COMPACT.

The basal principies may be thus stated: Education is the surest preventive of pauperism. Crime is in the inverse ratio of the education of the people. Universal education tends to universal morality. In a word, the ideal citizenship is to be achieved only by universal education.

GOVERNMENT PROPRIETARIES.

Should the public system assume the task of training in the higher technological schools? This is a grave question and has two sides.

On the one hand it may be claimed with good show of reason, that no principle of sound democratic government is violated, but on the contrary there is an eminent propriety in the government having superintendence of the education of its own officials in those specialties which require technical skill. Military and naval academies, medical schools for army surgeons, schools for engineering for those who are to plan and build public works, and whatever else may promise to secure the highest skill for its servants, the government might well claim as not only rightfully within its control, but a necessity of its efficient administration.

Apart from this special consideration, the theory exists that higher as well as lower education should be parts of one vast system under the fostering care and entire support of a public system, maintained at the expense of the State. The higher technological schools, under the views presented in this paper, must share in the relation thus outlined. The theory just referred to is intensely fascinating to many minds, more, we are inclined to think, because of its gigantic proportions and bold simplicity, than because of real merit or by sound reasoning.

Per contra. There is no necessity for such a scheme. Private beneficence has, so far, met all demands for technological institutions of higher grade. In the matters of efficiency and thoroughness, there are now at least five heavily endowed institutions which offer facilities of the most perfect character to students seeking the highest skill. These are Rennsalaer, Sheffield, Worcester, Boston, and Rose Schools.

It is a serious question whether free tuition would be advisable, when it is considered that mediocrity and idleness would be thus made the beneficiaries of opportunities which they either could not or would not improve.

Again, such technological instruction is confessedly very expensive, requiring the best talent and a large outlay of money. Which is the higher demand, to educate the few in these higher lines or give to the many that which they must have to qualify them for the common duties of citizenship—a result which our public system has not yet fully compassed?

Again, what is the ground of discrimination, by which the State would thus confer upon one class of its citizens a profession, having a monetary value equal to the business capital which other classes must acquire for themselves?

THE ROMANCE OF PEDAGOGICS.

The science of pedagogics is a familiar phrase now, and he must be a bold man indeed who would deny to the teachers' work the character of a science. Like all things else which have embodied the best thoughts of men and have most profoundly affected the destiny of the race, this too has found its romantic side. Out of our hope and faith and love we have drawn an inspiration more potent than that furnished by our science.

The anticipation—not to say the dream—of universal education is one of the teacher's visions. He magnifies his office by extending its blessed ministration universally. The ideal is worthy, though its actualization is not imminent. Approach to it does not lie in the line of the higher education. This is not possible and would not be best if possible.

It is enough and reasonable to expect the beneficent spirit of culture to lay its hand upon all men, to the extent of giving them the knowledge most needed for practical life, making the burdens they bear a joy rather than a sorrow, and investing all things with the light of God's truth.

THE RELATION OF THE UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE, AND HIGHER SCHOOLS TO THE PUBLIC SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION.

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The two institutions specially named in this topic, although often doing the same sort of work, are, nevertheless, in these Western States at least, not precisely the same either in their relation to the public or to the public schools. It is not necessary to make the distinction now, and in what is here said, though employing more frequently the term university, I shall endeavor to limit myself to such statements as are applicable to all schools of collegiate grade, of whatever name.

Twenty years ago, Professor Seeley, of Cambridge, declared that the schools of England were largely what the universities chose to make them. What was true twenty years ago in this regard, is true to-day, and I doubt not Professor Seeley would, if necessary, reiterate his statement. What is true in England is true in much the same way in the United States. Our public schools are, and always have been, much what our superior institutions of learning make them. This assertion rests upon several well defined considerations in presenting which I hope to make clear my own view, at least, of this most important subject.

1. In the first place, it is plain that public instruction exists only where there is a public sentiment demanding it; but for the creation of such sentiment all history proves that we must rest upon universities, upon those higher institutions where men have discovered the excellence of knowledge, where learning is loved and cultivated for her own sake. The public schools of New England were founded by the same men who founded the universities and colleges of those favored communities. Among those men those who had known the best culture of their time in the universities of the old world were not a few. So certain indeed appears the truth of this my first proposition, that it may well be doubted whether, in the absence of universities and colleges, a system of public education would ever be established at all, or if by missionary effort established, could, for any length of time be maintained. There must be a tonic in society, a high inspiration somewhere, some appreciation of education and its uses, before anything as purely theoretical as a system of public instruction can ever become a factor in human society or be supported at public expense.

In the same line of argument it has been proved, over and over again that where higher institutions of learning flourish most, there the public school finds warmest favor and exhibits greatest efficiency. The Boston Report for 1874, says: "The common school is always feeble and inefficient where high schools, academies, and colleges are wanting. Educational science proves that education works from the top downward, and not from the bottom upward. It was, therefore, with the wisest foresight that the Prussian Government, in undertaking the regeneration of the State through education, after the crushing defeat of Jena, began by the establishment of the great Frederick William University, at Berlin." Adams, speaking for England, says: "Experience has proved that elementary education flourishes most where the provision for higher education is most ample." It is the special function of the university to create an educated class competent to appreciate, sustain, and direct to happiest results the educational endeavor of the State. For this reason, the man who argues that because he sends no child to college, therefore the college is of no service to him, makes the greater mistake.

2. In the second place, the universities and colleges of our country are continually sending down to every department of the public system below them men and women fitted to do the work of teaching. Without this aid, the situation of our lower schools in the general absence of training and normal schools, would be, indeed, deplorable. Of all the city superintendents, principals of high schools, of graded schools even, in the State of Iowa, it is safe to say that nine-tenths bear a collegiate degree. The same may be said, in general, of the schools of Illinois, of all our northern States; is true of the schools of England, and is pre-eminently true in Germany. Thus it appears that the university not only creates the public sentiment which sustains the schools, it also, by furnishing the teaching force, gives the schools whatever they have of character and direction.

3. Thirdly. The university offers a constant inspiration to all schools below, by offering to every youth the opportunity of entering upon the finest fields of intellectual effort. The extent of this inspiration is seldom realized. It runs out along all lines, through all the schools, pulpits, courts, nay verily, through all the homes, wherever the name university is heard, a constant, ever present stimulus to intellectual life and endeavor. I have seen the state-house in a State capital crowned with a circle of blazing electric lamps, before the eyes of every citizen, even of the humblest child, within a circle whose radius measured miles and miles. So the university is a "universal light-fountain," beheld, it may be, from far, by every son of genius, by every aspiring child. The university is the signal station by which we hail the thoughtful and intellectual of every land; the register of the world's intellectual life. Every new pro-

gressive impulse, from whatever centre originating, finds here its estimate and due appreciation. Continually "the best that is thought and written" in every department of the world's work here comes to form, and enters the channels of activity and service. The various professors and doctors,—each in his own field, if he do not originate, at least can perceive and appreciate, and it is his prerogative to understand and use for the benefit of all the people that which the more fortunate may offer. To-day the chemist is fascinated by the brilliant generalizations of Mendjelef; to-morrow the biologist follows the subtle researches of Foster as he attempts to picture the play of life's ever tossing fountain, or the rhythm of life's matchless, infinitely delicate, and wonderful machinery. All literary, all scientific progress, is by means of the university brought within the circle of the public system of education, and made subservient to the purposes of that system, helpful in the maintenance of loftier types of citizenship, and the accomplishment of all our noblest political endeavor.

It is sometimes said that of our entire educational system the university (and I put the university for all of its kind) constitutes the crown, the head, in which culminates all that learning can do for the public weal; but the university is something more,—it is the *heart.*

Naturalists will remember that, in some of the lower types of animal life, there is no complete network of arteries, capillaries, and veins, as in our human bodies; nevertheless, a central heart pumps on forever, driving arterial blood out through all the body, pouring nourishment over all the tissues, and by its very emptying of itself, creating a vacuum toward which the blood without the intervention of connected veins, but by various routes, continually returns. So stands the university (or college) in its relations to all the system of public schools below. Ever and forever it sends down by all routes and agencies, to all grades and classes of society, a wealth of culture and mental stimulus; ever and forever, it draws to itself all the aspiring, all seekers after truth, a stream which its own pulse has quickened. Forever emptying itself to be forever filled, maintaining for society the intellectual life-current without which all must eventually end in stagnation and decay. The problem in the United States is no longer the university of the common school, nor yet the maintenance of universities, even of those supported by the State; the problem, rather, is to bring these two agencies, acting for common purposes, into more simple, constant, and ever increasingly vital relationship with each other, so that more and more the educational forces of this country may become a unit, potency irresistible to the creation of ever more distinct and permanent nationality, until it shall be true that our people are the most highly educated, as they are now confessedly "the most generally educated people on the face of the earth."

*DISCUSSION.**

REV. F. A. NOBLE, D.D., EDITOR OF THE "ADVANCE."

This has been an exceedingly suggestive morning to me. I should have been sorry to miss the stimulus which has come to me this morning as I have listened to these various papers on the topic which has been before us. One of the thoughts suggested to me, and one which seems to me of great value for every teacher and every friend of education to carry home is, the unity of this educational work in which men in the highest institutions, and men and women in the lower schools of the whole country, are engaged. It has been demonstrated, and it is to be more and more demonstrated until it is taken home and made one of the factors of our thought and life, that the work, from the top to the bottom is one work; and the teacher who is teaching in the primary department locks hands with these men who stand at the head of the highest institutions of the country, in doing one work. It is a magnificent influence to have these heads of the universities come here and recognize the unity of this educational work. If I had had the privilege of amending the programme in any degree, it would have been to intermingle with these papers that have come from the presidents of colleges and universities, other papers from those that are teaching in the high schools and in the lower departments of the public schools, showing what they want of the universities.

There is one other thought: the influence of this work—this common educational work, taking in the higher and the middle and the lower,—in making American citizens, in developing American nationality. I have been thinking about that this morning. We are trying the best we can to bring all classes of men right into unity on the basis of loyalty to the American idea: that is what we want. Men that have spoken here this morning have spoken uniformly to that key note. Yesterday that was the key note; the development of the mind, the work of instruction concentrating itself upon the idea of making, not Grecian citizens, not German citizens, not French citizens, not English citizens, but American citizens. Now, an American citizen must be an intelligent and moral citizen, if he is going to fill the destiny which, in my judgment, God has put upon America. In this sense and in this one work, as I have stated, unity is what will bring about just that. We cannot do it altogether in churches; but when we get together as members and representatives of the churches, we will discuss this question of the advance, and how to reach the masses of men. There are certain churches which cannot reach the masses. I think we are gaining, and I think all the churches of this country are gaining in their aggressive work. You have as teachers in universities, in colleges, in academies, in public schools, and in private school, you have all the boys and girls of America in your hands and, it is possible for the men and women who occupy these responsible places to so direct young minds, that they shall become American citizens, and that they will be inspired, and given the impulse and development of American ideas and of growth towards American character.

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* Reported by a stenographer.

Now, I was introduced here as editor of *The Advance*. Your president is coming to call me down, but I want to say this word before he strikes, from the preachers' standpoint. I want the teachers of America to keep in mind the capacities of the boys and girls, and instruct them while they have them in their charge, in the academies and in the universities; to make themselves felt in impressing the American idea upon the minds of the boys and girls in their charge, and then push them forward with this idea, up into the highest institutions of American learning.

Dr. Mayo. After so much has been said by men who know so much about college education, that they cannot tell it very plainly to the common mind, I think it will be refreshing to this audience to hear a man who knows so little of colleges, that he can tell all he knows in less than five minutes.

When I was 20 years old, I entered Amherst College, Massachusetts. I knew nothing at all. There were thirty boys admitted to Amherst College. Ten of them had been fitted in the great fitting schools of New England, and were prepared to take up the college curriculum; the other twenty were boys from the country, who knew as little as such boys generally do. But the great crank began turning, and the whole work proceeded, on the basis of those ten boys who had been trained for the college curriculum. The result was that class graduated thirteen students: all the rest went to pieces in the operation.

As I look about the country now, in passing from State to State, I see that the opposite difficulty is the great difficulty in college education, that unity of purpose of which the gentleman has spoken so eloquently here has prevailed, and now everything is called a college, from an assemblage of girls in pantalettes up to Michigan University: everything is a college which is not a university. The trouble is now, that some thousands of children, that ought to be in grammar schools, or in a good academy or high school, are pushed into the colleges; and as a consequence, the college work is discouraged and kept down in many places. It seems to me there are two things that would be for the benefit of the college, especially in the South and the neighboring parts of the country. The first thing is, to elevate the elementary and second work through the community, so that the college will have material in it with which to do something. Twenty years ago, I remember that every man's cellar in Chicago had water in it, and the people put the screws under the houses, under each block, and along each street of Chicago, and raised the whole city bodily eight feet above the prairie. Then Chicago became healthy. That is just what we want in our college life in this country. We want great universities, we want elementary education, we want the masses of the people educated. As we bring up the masses, the upper stories will feel the benefit of it. It is important, above all things, for the colleges especially, that they should train teachers; and that these teachers should know how to teach. Every college should have a professor of pedagogy in it, who knows what pedagogy is. I want to say—and it is the last thing I shall say—that it is a matter of profound astonishment to me, that the great colleges for girls—Vassar, and Wellesley, and Smith—that are sending out more girls to teach than any other institutions, have to-day no professor of pedagogy, and have no word even of recognition of the fact that normal training is necessary for a teacher who graduates from a college.

J. H. HOOSE. Touching the relation of the lower schools to the higher schools, I feel that that is a great link which must be welded. In order to make our public school system as effective as it should be, in order to realize in this country the American idea, they must be brought together. Touching this matter, I shall speak of one point—the normal school. The normal-school idea is that of a connecting link between the pupils of the public school on the one hand, and the teachers on the other. These teachers are to point the people upward to the higher schools and to a higher life. This is the idea of a normal school, that it shall prepare teachers to teach in the public school (and by public is meant, not only the district school, but the high school,) so that the teachers who have graduated from our normal courses, can go into these upper schools, academies, and high schools, and prepare their students for the colleges, and for the university. Thus the normal-school idea is related, on the one hand, to the public school, and on the other, to the university. We are striving to make that point more and more effective. I want to say a word, hardly germane to this theme, yet somewhat touching the standpoint of mental science; I mean the study of the child. We are told as teachers, by professors of mental science, that we ought to study the child. I want to say this, that so far as universities are handing down to us studies on mental science, it seems to me that the standpoint of mental science is not the standpoint that the public school teacher wants. I speak with the greatest respect for the work of the colleges and univer-ities, touching the study of mental science; but I mean to say that, to study that science as it is studied, so much from the speculative standpoint, does not bring the teacher who studies it down to the capabilities of studying the child. The standpoint for studying the child's nature is in the schoolroom and not in the study. That is what I meant to say; that is the work of the normal school to-day, that is the work which the universities have not done thus far.

DR. PRICE, of TENNESSEE. One of the most prudent, one of the soundest, and one of the most eloquent papers in my opinion, which has been delivered on this platform, this morning, is that of Dr. Strong, on the subject of the Christian college. Where I am personally known, I should not for an instant be suspected of making an attack on the public school system of the United States. I have now in my pocket the manuscript of an article, which, if it could be shown to you for a moment, would disabuse any mind of that impression. But that there is an alarming tendency towards secularization in the public schools of America is a subject which has given great concern to many of the best people of this country.

I am glad, therefore, that Dr. Strong has this morning presented here a paper in the interest of Christian education. We are in danger of forgetting the history of our American institutions. Those who are urging the secularization of the public school system are fond of quoting the statement that, because the State is secular, therefore the education given by the State must also be secular. In this individual case, I meet it with a comprehensive denial. I need not for a moment argue before this intelligent audience, that the men who founded this government did wisely and deliberately incorporate into its framework their own profound religious convictions. The men who constituted the convention for framing the constitution of the United States were, without any known exception, earnest if not devout believers in all the fundamental principles of Christianity. I know that it has sometimes been asserted that Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Franklin must be excepted from this list; but one of the first acts of the congress was to request the Rev. Mr. DuShea to open its session with prayer. And in supporting that resolution, Franklin said: "Gentlemen, the longer I live, the more profoundly am I convinced of this one truth, that God controls in the affairs of men." Mr. Jefferson, under whose auspices the act for establishing the religious freedom of Virginia was passed, does in that act recognize the existence of Almighty God, and of Jesus Christ, the author of our lives, the author of our souls and bodies.

The Congress of the United States, in 1777, voting by States, instructed the committee on commerce to import an edition of 20,000 copies of the Holy Scriptures. In 1781, there was introduced into Congress a petition for an act to publish an edition of the Holy Scriptures. Not only was the resolution adopted, but a committee was appointed to approve the work when done, and, in a manifesto, to recommend it to the people of the United States of America. At various times in the history of Congress it has, by the most solemn enactments, recognized the fundamental principles of our Christian religion. In 1780, calling men to thanksgiving, Congress asked that, everywhere, men should pray that Almighty God might spread abroad all over this country the knowledge of his truth. In 1799, a similar proclamation not only recognized God Almighty, but recognized Jesus Christ and the Holy Ghost, specifically by name. Not only this, but, in 1863, when the government of the United States was grappling with the great war question which agitated that time, and was in the throes and agonies of possible civil dissolution, Congress passed a resolution, to the effect that their confidence in their success in this war rested upon the fact, that they made their appeal to Almighty God, through Jesus Christ.

I therefore say, Mr. President, that it is time for us as American citizens to recall the fundamental principles upon which our government is based and founded.

President Blanchard. When Dr. Noble said that he thought the mistake in the programme was in not making arrangements for alternation of remarks upon the college and high school system to-day, I was reminded of a little remark that was made by Mr. Murphy in Farwell Hall, when he was here last winter. There had been a good deal of talk about the duties that wives owe to the husbands, and I finally remarked to Mr. Murphy, that I thought the women ought to have a chance to lecture the men a little, and Mr. Murphy instantly replied: "Don't they lecture us, though!" But perhaps our programme is not liable to objection, on that point this morning.

I desire, just for a moment, to emphasize the points which it seems to me have come out in the admirable papers to which we have listened this morning. And first, it seems to me we have arrived at this fact regarding the relation of institutions for higher and institutions for primary education: no radical relations exist. I need not spend time in emphasizing this thought, but I wish clearly to state it. I shall never forget the position taken by the gentlemen who have presented the papers this morning, beginning with President Angell, and passing down to the gentleman who read the last paper, — that the common schools are the mainstay of the colleges and universities of the world; that education does not proceed from the lower to the higher, but in every case, so far as history determines, from the higher to the lower. I want to put along with this thought, the fact that came out so clearly in the paper of President Strong, that this higher education, which may be so helpful to the lower education, was not a secular higher education, dealing with things simply, but it was a Christian education, dealing primarily with the eternal relations of the soul of man to the God who has made the universe. If we fail to remember this fact, we simply fail to comprehend the actual historical relations of the higher to the lower institutions of learning. I also want to call attention,—if I may be permitted to cover ground already so clearly and forcibly entered,—to the fact that for the present relations between schools for higher education and schools for primary and secondary instruction, that for the antagonizing, distrust, suspicion, and unfriendliness the colleges of the country are not without responsibility. We ought, so far as we may, to do away with the just ground for this accusation of the methods indicated in the first paper read. I wish to suggest, however, the inquiry whether we are exactly just to the college and university system of the world, in affirming that the college and university system has made no advance. I am not prepared this morning to cover that ground because it is one requiring investigation. So far as I am able to understand, the difference between the educational system of the higher sort to-day, and the educational system of the higher sort of the past, is that the educational system of the higher sort used to be concerned with simply Latin and Greek, whereas at the present time it is interested in the whole curriculum, in the various departments of university instruction. The difference is that the education of the past belonged to the few; its benefits came to the few. There were two classes of great buildings, there were the temples for the priests, and there were the palaces for the kings; whereas in the education of the present time, we have been taking off the top story from the palaces, and the top stories from the temples, and have been adding them to the little huts in which the people who make up the great majority of the human race, the common people, if you will allow that expression, live. It seems to me that no man can trace the course of events by which these palaces and these temples have been lowered, without seeing that it was the Christian education; the Christian men who came from universities and colleges, who parted with everything that men ordinarily hold dear, and fought out the battle of human liberty, three or four hundred years ago. When that battle began, we know that liberty was the word. There was no liberty to thinkers in Greece, there was no liberty in Rome: the very name Republic in those days was a mockery. But, by and by, Christian sentiment came into the hearts of men, and they said, rather than give up this privilege which we have inherited from God, we will resist, we will suffer, and if we can, we will fight unto the death. And so human liberty came in. It seems to me that, perhaps, we do an injustice to the university education of the past age, by imagining it to have been more extensively concerned with these non-human affairs, than with affairs which are of common interest, I mean to say simply the Latin and the Greek, in place of what everybody wants.

President Sheldon. I pause at this stage, to give an opportunity for the great body of educators in this house to ask these distinguished college men any questions they choose. You may catechise them, as they would catechise you, if they could get you into their classes.

A Voice. I have a question, simply for information. I would like to ask the distinguished gentlemen on the platform, if in their opinion the higher departments of education should rest upon the same financial basis as the lower. In other words, Should the higher education be supported by the State, as is the lower?

The President. Dr. Ely T. Tappan, Commissioner of Education, of Ohio, is prepared to answer that question.

Dr. Tappan. If I were to confine myself simply to the question that is asked, I would say, it depends upon circumstances: I say, sometimes it does, and sometimes not. But, Mr. President, I do not intend to confine myself to that question. It is a question that must be asked, and must be investigated in every State, and it has received a great deal of attention. In Ohio I would answer the question one way, in Michigan, probably in another way. The relation between the universities and colleges and higher technological schools, to the common schools of the country is a topic that is well worthy the attention of such a body as this. What is there that connects them? What is there that binds all these various schools into one interest? We are all engaged in teaching, we are all engaged apparently in a common work, and yet we do not find any one that can state the common object in a way that suits any other one than himself. We are told that it is the American idea. What is the American idea? To make American citizens. I verily believe that the conscious presence of that thought in the mind of the teacher is as one in a hundred to other thoughts in the minds of every teacher in the house. How many times does any one of these teachers present think, while engaged in daily work, "Now I am making, or helping to make American citizens"? No, the American idea, if we are to define it, must be made something broader than that, if it is to cover the ground of education. We are all engaged in trying to make better men and women, if we do our duty. If you can make the American idea as broad as that, then you can say all our schools are trying to carry forward that one thought, that we may do our duty to mankind. The American idea, we might say, declares that every man and woman is to be respected, simply because they are men and women. But there is the humam soul, worthy of all respect, worthy of all labor, worthy of all efforts of improvement, it is the highest and the best; Do we all think of that? If so, then we have a common ground upon which all teachers can stand.

President Sheldon. Not quite satisfied with Dr. Tappan's answer, I will call up from Ohio a man whom I think can answer this question without regard to circumstances. It is Dr. Andrews, of Marietta College.

Dr. Andrews. My friends, this question is answered, and I have the documents. The subject presented this morning, and printed on these slips is "The Relation of the University, College, and Higher Technological Schools to the Public System of Instruction." Now, one thing is related to another: if there is a relation between two things, there are two things; and we have here, under the imprimatur of the President of the great National Educational Association of this country, we have perhaps for the first time, the boundary of the public system of instruction given; and it is, that the university and the college are outside of it; because the question discussed here this morning is the relation of the university to the public system of instruction. It is the relation of the college to the public system of instruction. Therefore, by all logic, the university and the college are outside of the public system of instruction. I have all my life been trying to make a solution of this question, and it is worth coming all this long distance to Chicago, to have it definitely settled, and I agree to it.

Mr. Campbell, of California. I want to say that in California, we take rather a different view of the subject. The legislature of California at its last session passed an act, by which a per capita tax of one cent on each $100 of taxable property in the State is levied for the support of the State university. More than that, students are admitted to the State university from graded high schools without examination. We have established direct and immediate connection between the university, the high school, the intermediate schools, and the primary schools, of California. It is solid from the bottom to the top.

Dr. Hagar. I have nothing on earth to say in regard to this great question as to whether or not the State should maintain, by public taxation, an entire system of education from the bottom to the top. I confess I am unable to answer that question to my own satisfaction. In Massachusetts, we have our free primary schools, our free grammar schools, our free high schools, and we have what I believe no other State in this Union has, under the law of this State, from the bottom to the top of the school system, free text-books. Every child that enters our schools, enters with the right to free books, whether in the primary school, the grammar school, or the high school. Every piece of paper that is needed the public furnishes. Every slate pencil or bit of rubber is given freely. So that all our children are placed on the same level: there is no distinction. There are no charity books. Some use their own books, and others use books belonging to the public, but all stand on the same level. In that respect, we have, we think, made a very great advance. The results have been very manifest, and one of the most conspicuous results is this, that the number of pupils attending our free public schools has been largely increased. They come now, more than formerly, from our poorer classes of people, people who are able to clothe and feed their children, but are not able to furnish them with such books as are commonly required in high schools. These books are all free, and the consequence is a very large increase in the number of pupils in our high schools. Amherst college is not supported by the public, but Harvard college does present a great many free scholarships to her students, so that a really worthy young man of marked ability is, in almost every case, able to obtain a scholarship.

A Voice. Does the State pay for these scholarships?

Dr. Hagar. The State does not pay for these scholarships; they are founded by private donation, and a large number have been established in that way, by wealthy men of the city of Boston and of the State.

Mrs. Williams, of Ohio. I think there is a great deal in this question that the brethren upon the platform might have been able to answer as to higher education, whether it shall be under the care of the State or under the care of the great denominations. There are complications, which ever way we look at it. It does seem to me that the brethren who have been engaged in college work for so many years ought not to dodge such a question as that. I have been a little ashamed of them. There are certain questions that gentlemen, under certain circumstances, do not dare to meet. I have found that out, and it must be that this is one of them, for certainly there has been a great deal of dodging. I have often been glad that I am not superintendent of a great system of schools, because I should be afraid every time the annual election came round, that I should be set out of my house, and my babies would be crying for something to eat, because the matter of retention in such positions is largely in the hands of politicians. It has occurred to me, right there, our friend Mr. Campbell, of California, will find a little difficulty in running his institutions. Perhaps not, out in California; California and Ohio are two different States. California is all right, I suppose, so is Ohio; but once in a while we get a superintendent of schools set out—I have known such a thing.

If, as has been stated this morning, individual munificence, church munificence, will provide largely for this higher education, we can avoid all these complications that come to us from political association. I can see no reason why, in the main, the work should not be done through these channels. Here is our friend, Dr. Angell. It looks to me as though he were able to answer this question. Dr. Angell may look at it on one side, and the people of the denominational colleges may look at it on the other side, and sometimes we see advantages on both sides.

President Angell. I confess I have enjoyed this discussion, if so it may be called. There have been some things so peculiarly gratifying to me, that I must refer to some of them. In the first place, I am a Rhode

Islander, born and bred; and ever since the day that they sent Roger Williams over into Rhode Island, nothing has been so delightful to the Rhode Islander as to see two Massachusetts men get into a fight, and we have been promised that there is going to be even a bigger one when they get home!

Then I want to say, for the encouragement of any who look with particular sympathy upon my brother Mayo, that he has been down to Ann Arbor, of these late years, and, although he moved among the plain livers and high thinkers of that poor town, and encountered all the trials of an Ann Arbor boarding house, yet it is believed he digested all that was set before him; so I believe he has promise of a long life.

As to the remarks of my friend, Mrs. Williams, who has just spoken, it may seem ungracious, perhaps, in me, but I may here state that at just this moment the president of the Wesleyan University seems to be in somewhat the same difficulty as that which she has described as the condition of many presidents and officers of State universities. In other words, these officers are threatened with much the same difficulties under the organization of both the state and the denominational university. But the question is a great one, and one that is for practical consideration. We have both the state and denominational institutions, and we must maintain both for the present at least, and get all the good we can out of them all. That is my doctrine, and so far as I am concerned, no friends of any denominational college shall have cause to complain of the unfriendly attitude of the University of Michigan towards them. There is work enough, and more than enough, for all the schools and institutions in this country. Let them all do whatsoever good they can, and then I fear there will still be a mass of ignorance and a mass of vice to contend with. I say Godspeed! to every great college which is wisely and prudently founded, and wisely and prudently conducted. As I look over this great audience, I am struck with that which has always impressed me when I come into a company of teachers, and that is, how intent you all are. I do believe, my friends, it is the most glorious calling in the world, for many reasons, because we are never going to grow old, any of us. Colleges and common schools are all together in one boat in this matter. I have seen a good many men and a good many teachers with gray hairs, once in a while one who was a little bald, but I never saw an old one. I never saw one who was old in heart or old in spirit. Did you ever see one so old that, when he went out on the street, the boys and girls, and some of them pretty well along in life who used to know him, did not take delight in catching him by his coat tails, while others looked up into his face for his blessing? My good friends, that is the reward; not pecuniary, surely, but it is the great reward which awaits you and awaits us all in this blessed pursuit to which we are called, in every grade, from the highest to the lowest. And I may say, perhaps, without impropriety from my official position, that if there is any person I look upon with envy, if there is any person whose gifts I have over and over again coveted, it is that woman, who, with sixty, or seventy, or eighty children in the kindergarten or primary school, marshals them together, and trains them day by day in peace and quiet and beauty. I believe it requires a higher gift than it does to manage a great college or a university; and I delight to see so many here to-day. I wish to stretch my hand across the great distance which they may think separates us, and greet them to-day with sympathy, and thanksgiving, and delight; because I feel that in the truest sense, their work is the higher work, the truer work, the original work, and if it is not well done, all that we can do is of very little consequence.

I believe in harmony. I believe in everything said here to-day. I think there has been no position taken which, under a broad and generous view, is not thoroughly reconcilable. My friend, Dr. Strong, has stated the importance of Christian training and forming character: I agree with him fully. Some day, there shall grow out of the present common-school system a great system of public education in this land.

I believe, my friends, that after all, there is a great moral force that will control this matter. It is not so much text-book, and family instruction; it is the characters of you men and women who have these boys and girls in your hands. When I look out upon such an assemblage as this, I feel encouraged when I know the solid, earnest, moral, Christian character, of the great mass of you teachers. It is because of this that I do not abate one jot or one tittle of my hope in our public school system of education in these United States. Here are your great Chicago papers throwing out their arms over the whole continent, and raking out from the slums of vice every morning a record of every crime that has been committed or heard of, and yet how rarely is the name of the public or private school teacher found in those sheets. I say to you, my friends, it is a somewhat significant and a most cheering fact. This profession does not attract or invite rascals or scoundrels; it has no charms for such; it has charms only for those who find their reward not in the filthy lucre which it brings,—we all know that is too little to attract anybody,—but because you teachers see, in training the young, the germs which ennoble mankind, and ennoble womankind, in shaping and moulding the character of this nation. It is because you look for your reward in the future; it is because you do your work in this spirit, that I cast my entire confidence and hope in the American school teachers and the American school system, as we find them to-day. They are as a class, reverent, God-fearing, God-loving men and women, and I think we must be careful lest by any word at any time, we give them reason to fear that we do not prize them, as I believe in the bottom of my heart we all do trust them. It is because the great American heart is wrapped up in its teachers, is sound upon the spirit and purpose with which our whole system of education private and public is founded, that we go forward, and believe that this generation is not to be lost but is to be saved.

THE MEANS AND ENDS OF CULTURE TO BE PROVIDED FOR THE AMERICAN PEOPLE BEYOND THE ORDINARY SCHOOL PERIOD.

DR. J. H. VINCENT,* CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

The topic which has been committed to me for a thirty-five minutes' address is, "The Means and the End of Culture for the American People beyond the Ordinary School," and the subject divides itself, after the fashion of sermons, into four general points, or heads.

First, the American people; second, the American people beyond the ordinary school; third, the ends; fourth, the means of their culture. To these may be added two points, as suggested by the programme, and I really have six points to discuss. And you may thank your stars, this tropical night, that I am limited to thirty-five minutes—now but thirty minutes—for the discussion of the six points, under the administration of a president whose distinctive quality it is, among other admirable qualities not enumerated, to rap down a speaker, as a printer might put a period in the wrong place, in the very middle of a word or sentence.

The American people. What feelings leap to one's thoughts at the mention of them! I have been permitted, during the past ten months, to stroll about over the old world, from London to Jerusalem and Damascus. I visited a great many old palaces. I saw Her Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain and Empress of India, the representative of the greatest government on earth, our own excepted. I saw too representatives of the nobility; and when people in France, and in Italy, and in England, and in Germany, and in Turkey talked about the nobility of their respective nations, and asked me about our nobility, I said, "The American people." When they talked to me about thrones, and monarchs, and sovereigns, and royal families, I said, "The American people." No order of nobility between the head of an American citizen and the infinite heavens! No man superior by legal enactment or by birth in America! Every man has a right to be all that he pleases, and all that he has power to be. And as I think of the American people, I distinguish between the masses and the people. For, as a friend said to me the other day, "Do not say 'the masses,' say 'the mass of the people,' and 'the American people,' for there is a difference." The American people are units, not a mass. A mass is a body of humanity pressed and crushed down, individuality destroyed, dominated by a hierarchy, dominated by political leaders, hurled this way and that way at the bidding of a force. But the American people are sixty million units, who stand responsible to God, but without the fear of any human power, ecclesiastical or political.

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* Reported by a stenographer.

Second, the American people beyond the ordinary school period. They are numerous: I have not read the most recent statistics, but I am informed that the average American youth leaves the public school at less than twelve years of age. Am I correct? What does a boy know of education before he is twelve years of age? What can he do in the line of that thinking which makes the man, before he is twelve years of age? And it so happens that this great body of the American people who leave school before they are twelve years of age, awaken a little later to realize their loss; and the young fellow says, at eighteen, "What a pity, what a fool I was to leave school! Why didn't my father make me stay? Why didn't my mother plead with me? Why didn't the government make me stay? and now it is too late!" And the man of forty, who begins to accumulate property and get along very well in the world, says, "What a pity I have not a good education! It is too bad. I wish I could only go back into my childhood, and get a good education; but it is too late." A mother says, at forty, with Mamie coming home from school, asking her questions in English history, or in Greek history, "Mamie, I do not know, my darling. Your mother did not have your education." "Why, mother, I thought you knew everything." Mother says, "Mamie, I am so sorry." And thus tens of thousands and millions of American people leave school, and soon discover their lack of knowledge, and become despondent; and then they deteriorate as the years go by, adapting themselves to the necessities of their situation. And if they read anything, read weak things. With no aspirations, no hope, these people out of school are the people really at their best intellectually. No, my dear sir, it isn't at fifty that the teacher may give up his work of teaching, and retire on a competency. Why, at fifty, a man ought to be doing his best. A man who observes the laws of physical health, who thinks wisely, and who reads carefully, and teaches faithfully, ought to be in his prime at sixty. Did you ever hear of Gladstone? I say that these American people outside of the school are at their best intellectually, from eighteen years of age up to eighty.

Thirdly, the ends of culture for the American people beyond the school. Have all these people the education, the culture of the higher sort? Now, I can concrete what I have to say by a picture or story. It will be better than by an attempt to state a series of propositions. I put it in this way: If I had a boy whom I expected to make a blacksmith, I would send him through a college first. I want you to take that thought in,—that if a boy is to be a blacksmith, he ought to be sent to college, and he ought to go through the ordinary schools, the grammar school, the high school, the preparatory school, the freshman year, the sophomore, junior, and senior years of the college. That he might be a blacksmith ? No, no man has a right to be nothing but a blacksmith ; no man has a right to let himself out as a machine, to do a certain amount of mechanical labor. My boy is to be an American citizen ; and as an American citizen, he needs to know history, to know political economy, to know all the fundamental principles which underlie that great curriculum of the average college, which is more than a mere mould of intellectual discipline, and which embodies fundamental principles of life, and growth, and character ; which make the man a better citizen when he understands them. My blacksmith boy is to be some girl's husband, and I hope he will be the father of six or more children ; and while a blacksmith may not need the culture of the college, a man who is to be a true and helpful companion to a woman, with her intellectual and æsthetic tastes, with her peculiar desires for culture, such a man needs to be a cultivated man. And as a father he needs it, that he may inspire his children with a desire to seek the higher education. Then, my blacksmith boy is to be a member of society. He has no business to stay in the blacksmith's shop all the while. He must wash his hands and face, and dress up, and come into the parlor, now and then of an evening, along with the best people of the community, for their sakes as well as for his own. And because he is a blacksmith, and his hands are hard and sometimes soiled, that is no reason why he should not be a gentleman in society, and inspire and help everybody with whom he comes in contact. Labor is a degradation only when a man lets himself out for nothing but labor. When a man works with his hands, and brings his brain down, and leaves the noblest instincts of his heart undeveloped, then labor is truly degradation to him. When a man has an intellect that revels in the magnitude of God's universe, and a heart that swells with sympathy towards humanity wherever it is found, and he reverences the infinite God, no honest labor can ever degrade him. And so I plead for the education, the ends of culture on the part of the people, because they are citizens, and parents, and members of society. And your public schools are to prosper not merely by your efficient teachers, but by co-operation of sympathy and teaching power, on the part of the parents. Some people say, the radical thing is beginning with the child. I say, the radical thing is to begin with the parents of the child. And, therefore, I plead for the ends of culture, which shall promote breadth, and sympathy, and strength, on the part of the American people.

Fourthly, the means of this culture for the American people out of the school. They cannot go back to school, but they must have some instruction. A man who does not know the best book to read, when he wants to read English history, is embarrased in attempting to read any English history that may drop in his way. When a man has the authority of scholars, and of critics, and of men who know, under such auspices, and with such authority, he can read the book with fifty per cent. greater advantage. If a man were to peruse a book, and were to wonder if he has the best, and whether when he gets through with it, somebody will say he wasted his time on it,—that man will never read with profit. All need to read widely, in order to broaden their horizon. Never mind if it is superficial. It is better to be superficial than wholly ignorant. It is better to know the alphabet superficially than not to know a single letter. It is better that a man should have a superficial idea of what geology is, and what the wondrous science contains, than not to be able to tell what the word means. It is better to be able to look up to the infinite heavens and pick out a few constellations, and form some sort of a conception of the movements of these magnificent orbs, than to look up as an animal may look up to the heavens, and know nothing about it. It is all nonsense to talk about superficiality. It is better that men should take a broad survey, that they may know how insignificant they are, and how vast the field of learning, how necessary it is for them to buckle to, and spend their lives in the study of the sciences, of literature, and all that.

But I will tell you another reason why a man should read broadly, and that is to get general conceptions; because a man never knows himself, never discovers himself and his many-sidedness, until he does.

William Cullen Bryant said, in a letter which I had the honor of receiving from him some years ago, that the reading which will cause a man to look into departments of learning to which he has never given attention will lead to self-discovery. So it is that a man who reads a book on geology finds, for the first time, that he has read something which suggests to him that he has a taste for geology. He finds, for the first time in his life, that he has a taste for English history; and finds, for the first time in his life, that he revels in the poems of Tennyson, and can find more rest in them than in any other bit of literature. It is possible to get a general idea, and for the general men to learn that they may discover for themselves, and enter into their work with zeal and new adaptation to given results. We need a means by which we shall have, on the part of the people, the stimulus of system, the stimulus of association, the stimulus of a prescribed course, the stimulus of a successive course of development from point to point, and from year to year, that a man of forty may feel something of the enthusiasm which the student feels in his college life. There are many other things in the means to which I might refer, but I must hasten.

In the next place, this great result is to be promoted by reading-circles, which should not demand too much. My dear sir, every busy man, every merchant, politician, blacksmith,—every busy man, you who really want refreshment,—devote one half-hour a day to reading and study. But you say you haven't the time. I will show you how you can manage to have time, how you can manage to read half an hour a day. How long did it take that eminent naturalist, Joseph Henry? How long did it take that eminent man who, when he was about fourteen years of age, had a little book on physical science given to him, and he took that with him at all times? He read it, and his eyes flashed, his soul was on fire, and he became the man that he was from that little book. Do not despise small things. You can turn the attention of scores of people from the haunts of ignorance and vice, elevate the ideal, and show that that ideal is possible. The very fact of the association gives a new impetus, and we find here a new delight.

Now, a reading-circle is organized in this way—you can organize your own, anywhere in your own community. Organize them only, so that the course of the reading is varied, and contains a wide range of subjects, and that course of reading will put better books on the shelves. That course of reading will put better pictures on the walls. That course of reading will put better conversation at the fireside: That course of reading will be an incentive to study, and the first thing you know, somebody will begin to think. I know that the first result of reading is the thinking that it develops. I would not give much for the mechanical reading of a book. It is the voluntary, concentrated thinking that a man does after he has read a book. Do you know that the great trouble with the people is that they do not know how to concentrate attention on a subject? When they have learned that secret, they have gone a long way towards being geniuses. The fact is, that a man, who knows how to fix his attention on a subject for five minutes uninterruptedly and intensely, is on the highway to success as a scholar. Show me the boy who has learned how to think on his own account for thirty minutes, and I will begin to weave a crown that shall rest one of these days on that fine brow of his. Show me a man who has so grappled with great subjects, and so conquered his power to the mastery of them, that he can think in an unbroken succession, for two hours, or three hours, on the subject, and I will show you a man of genius. Now, when you get the people to reading, you will very soon develop study and thinking into a subject, and finding causes. Did you ever think into a subject, that it did not become extraordinary? But if you thought long enough, the darkness became light. You think above it, you think around it, you think beyond it, you think through it, and the moment you have the joy of independent thought, you live a new life and are a new man. By getting people to read, you get them to thinking, and by making people think, you make them students.

Now then, when we can get the American parents interested in the work of the day-school teacher and Sunday school teacher, then we are helping and giving an inspiration to the good work.

I often think if the teacher could only measure the gratitude of some parents, for the fidelity and unselfish devotion in teaching their child for five days in the week, the teacher would herself take on a new life, and live and work under a glorious inspiration.

I plead for home reading by the people, and for home study, for the sake of the teacher, and for the sake of the taught.

You may expect me to say something about Jerusalem, but I have not time to talk about that city; I am looking for the new Jerusalem on earth. I am looking for the new heavens and new earth, wherein dwelleth righteousness. I am looking for culture, that shall be subordinate to righteousness and humanity. I believe in religion, and humanity, and religion that reverences the Heavenly Father, and that shows reverence to the Heavenly Father by sympathetic love to his children of the earth. I believe in a religion that reaches out to feeble humanity and governs by love.

I met in London a magnificent man. Some of you may have heard of him. He is one of the editors of the *Contemporary Review*. He is a member of the Institute at Nottingham. He is one of the most beautiful illustrations of perfect culture I ever met in my life. He said to me, the first time I met him, remember the words: "Labor and make music." Remember that music does not mean every mere harmony or melody; it means the higher and more refining influences of life and the soul. And remember to labor diligently and faithfully wherever God calls you, to make sweet music. In the last letter I received from him a day or two ago, he said, "Labor and make music." To-night I echo it to you, to work for childhood, work for parents, work for hearts, work for influences, work for the teacher, and put music wherever you go, making the pupil love whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are lovable, whatsoever things are of good report.

I myself taught school in a humble way for four years in my early life, and I have always counted myself a very inferior teacher in the practical work; but I have always felt as though every teacher were my brother, or my sister, who has enlisted in this glorious work of lifting up mankind by teaching the truth, and by preparing the soul to embrace and accept the truth. What we all need as teachers is a little larger outlook, a little less limitation, more breadth. As Victor Hugo says, "No perspective, no ambition." We want perspective which reaches out into eternal vistas, that we may have ambition to do splendid work on earth.

In traveling through Ohio, once, under the old N. Y., P. & O. regime, when they had the "broad gauge," I was very much annoyed one day by passing freight cars, and reading on the corner of each car the words, "Urbana Hoist." I said to a gentleman sitting near me, "What on earth is the 'Urbana Hoist'? one car, ten cars, twenty cars, marked 'Urbana Hoist, Urbana Hoist'!" He said, "I am sure I do not know," and I had no respect for him. I said to a gentleman sitting behind me, "What is 'Urbana Hoist'?" and he said he did not know. I finally said to the conductor, "What is 'Urbana Hoist'?" He says, "Well, we run 'broad gauge' and 'narrow gauge,' and when we get to Urbana, we just run the car into the shop and put it on narrow or broad gauge trucks, as the case may be;" and I said, what a magnificent thing the "Urbana Hoist" is.

So I say to you, what we need as teachers is the "Urbana Hoist," so that we can go every gauge, forever onward and upward, and may God speed your upward movement.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

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It is gratifying to note, in the general subject of which this is a subtitle, that this Association recognizes the fact that there are other agencies which affect society besides the public schools. From the prevailing discussions within the last dozen years, one might be led to suppose that all social institutions were about to be merged, or ought to be merged, in the public schools; for no sooner is some evil of society displayed in unusual prominence, than some zealot, ambitious for distinction, proposes some new attachment to the school system; and, with banners inscribed with "the new education," and with a blast of trumpets, he curvets before the gaping throng of light-weight spectators, the little herŏ of his brief hour, till the next "reformer" usurps his place. Editors, anxious to regale their readers with the latest novelty, take up the refrain; and an unsuspecting public are liable to think that this ephemeral hero has really found something new. They are led to believe that Solomon was mistaken when, a *blase* old man, he declared that there is nothing new under the sun.

Some boy cannot add rapidly and accurately; a reformer of arithmetic rushes to the front. Some girl is guilty of using the language ungrammatically, and we have "English as She is Taught." A young man who once went to school—or who is assumed to have been to school—steals; an exclamation of holy horror is heard all along the line, and some special religion, as an attachment to the school system, finds its apostolic reformer—just as if stealing were not older than schools. Drunkenness exists in the community: we now have a special law for the teaching of what is called temperance physiology, whatever that may be, as if the public schools were the divinely appointed instruments, to accomplish what has not been done in all the time since Noah was overcome with wine, after he had been surfeited, we may suppose, with water. After so many years, then, when new attachments to the school system have followed each other with such startling rapidity, and in such confusing variety, that people instinctively look to the public schools for a remedy if their shoes pinch, or their dress doesn't fit, or if the beef is tough, it is refreshing to note the recognition, in this National Association, of other influences that may possibly be expected to mould society. When cooking schools, and sewing schools, dress-making schools, hair-crimping schools, nail-paring schools, house-keeping schools, and all sorts of schools for every namable kind of girl's work, are engaging the attention of benevolent women; when shops for joining, and shops for welding, shops for pegging, for paring and trimming, for sawing and hammering, for tinkering and tinning, and for everything under the broad canopy of heaven, except the study which makes a school and not a mere play-house, are advocated by men who ought to be in better business. At this time it is encouraging to note that, in this widely representative body, the church, the library, the platform, the periodical press, debating societies, political clubs, the family most of all, heredity, the tone of society itself, imparted by those forceful characters of whom that society is in part composed, that all these influences are recognized here as potent, and as coordinate with the schools. And in what I may have to say, please to note that it must all be understood as taking account of all these other agencies, though I make this reference once for all.

I. Origin and History.

When the apprentice system was in vogue, the indentures by which those apprentices were bound to their masters stipulated that a certain number of months' schooling should be given yearly; the amount of this school attendance was less than the full time of the public schools, but so long as the schools were ungraded the apprentice boy, or girl, fitted into the system well enough. Upon the adoption of a system of somewhat rigid classification, apprentices, who attended school only half the year, could not well go on with pupils who attended double the time, hence apprentice-schools were established—a sort of ungraded school specially designed for this class of children. The apprentice system at length began to decay; the length of the apprenticeship began to grow less; the age of the apprentices as a rule became greater, and finally the special day schools were abandoned. Evening schools were then established to take the place of the apprentice schools. The apprentice schools, the system of grading, and the establishment of the evening schools, as outlined above, and in the order named, were developed in the Centre District, so called, of the city of Worcester, then a town, as early as in any place in this country, and I believe earlier than anywhere else. Evening schools were established in my city in 1850. It was not till seven years later that such schools were recognized by law, in Massachusetts, namely, in 1857. They are now quite common in all the cities and larger towns of that State, and in many other States; and in the thirty or more years of their existence the original purpose of these schools has been modified, so that now they may be regarded as supplementary to the public schools in a general way, and not merely as schools for a special class, apprentices, for example.

II. Purpose and Aim.

As now constituted, these schools are designed for persons of both sexes, fifteen or more years of age. The law, in Massachusetts, does indeed permit pupils twelve years of age to attend these schools; but since all children are required to attend the day schools twenty weeks a year, till the age of fourteen, these children cannot properly be sent to the evening schools during the period of their attendance in the day time, for the very obvious reason that both day and night would be too much study for pupils of that tender age; and if these children are at work during the day, it is a species of cruelty to require them to work by day and study by night, which is too much for most mature persons.

The object of public school education being to secure a fair degree of intelligence in all members of the community, the evening schools are designed to supplement the day schools—to clear up and rake after them—by giving the opportunity for children, who have been obliged to leave school before they have acquired sufficient knowledge to study profitably by themselves, to receive instruction sufficient to enable them to use the public library to advantage, to read the magazines and other periodicals with intelligence, to study the various works, now so numerous, by which science is made easy and brought within the intelligence of the ordinary reader, and thus to become self-taught.

In the respect above hinted at, we live in a wonderful age. Time was when the mysteries of science were a sealed book to the mass of mankind. Her mysteries were revealed only in the laboratories of the professor, and taught only to the favored few who enjoyed the training of the higher institutions, the colleges, the academies, and the high schools; or they were described only in scientific treatises, full of technical terms, and within the comprehension of students only. To know astronomy, an extended course in mathematics was a prerequisite. A knowledge of physics could be acquired only with the aid of a teacher to experiment, to illustrate, to explain with costly apparatus. Mental science and philosophy were set forth only in ponderous volumes, and in language unfamiliar to the common mind. Now, all this has been changed. We have the results of the most thorough investigations, and the profoundest research, described in popular language, and placed within reach of any reader of ordinary intelligence. The subtle reasoning by which the processes in our mental activity are discovered, and all the various phenomena of mind, are described in primers which a common man may understand; physical laws are made clear in little books, which show how these laws may be demonstrated with apparatus which anybody can make with a jack-knife, a string, a piece of cork, and a few straws and needles; astronomy may be learned as easily as the map of a city, without the higher mathematics; chemistry is no longer an occult science, and many of the most important experiments may be made by any bright boy in his mother's kitchen; while electricity, the knowledge of which has made such rapid strides within half a dozen years, may be comprehended in a general way from books prepared for the ordinary reader. It is no longer necessary for any one to go to college, in order to become an intelligent student. Indeed, instances are not wanting to show that the college graduate, relying on his laurels and his diploma, may be less a scholar and less a student, than the man who feels his deficiency and uses the abundant means, now at hand, for constant improvement.

The evening schools furnish to all the opportnuity for the attainments outlined above.

III. For Foreign-born Citizens.

In all these directions these schools are specially useful for foreigners coming to settle here, either without education, or with little knowledge of our language. A large proportion of the pupils in the evening schools of my city are Swedes, Armenians, Germans, and French, and the rapidity with which thay acquire the English is surprising. And the avidity with which the elementary studies are pursued by English-speaking immigrants, who have had no school-training at home, is not less remarkable. At a mature age, when they must work by day, these future citizens, stimulated by the air of freedom, appreciate the means of culture they enjoy here for the first time, to an extent that promises well for their future usefulness and prosperity, and that may well put to the blush those who are born in the midst of privileges which they do not improve.

IV. No Lavish Outlay for the Recklessly Indifferent.

In the history of these schools in my own State, it has been found that idlers have sometimes resorted to them with no serious purpose of study, but only to while away the vacant evening hours. Within a very few years, an eminent superintendent has said, "The problem of securing the regular attendance of pupils, and the interest essential to success, has yet to be solved;" and another, "We had the usual experience of crowded rooms for a few evenings after the schools were opened. When the novelty wore off, the attendance became less." In still another city it has been reported that two policemen were stationed at an evening school to keep order, and in a so-called evening high school, swelled to enormous proportions by unusual facilities of the principal for advertising through the daily press, and whose nominal attendance included pupils who came once a week, the crowd which surged in and out at the close of each recitation had to be headed off, one by one, by the new principal, who succeeded to the charge of this heterogeneous throng, after the committee, either from necessity or from choice, perhaps both, had found it wise to make a change.

Through this irregularity of attendance, a large part of the outlay for evening schools has been wasted. In the city of Boston alone, in a single school, a reliable estimate shows that the cost in one year was many thousand dollars in excess of what it needed to be, for accomplishing the work done. That evil has, I believe, been remedied. In her long experience, the city of Worcester has encountered this evil of reckless indifference, and after numerous attempts, she has controlled the evil by requiring from each pupil, on admission to the school, a deposit of $1.00 as a guarantee of punctuality and good conduct; and if the conditions are complied with, the deposit is refunded at the close of the term. In this way faithful pupils are protected in the right to quiet study, and the attention of the teachers; and in nearly all cases the money is refunded. Other cities have adopted means, more or less similar, to the same end; and now the expenditure, quite generally, brings a corresponding return. Those who propose to establish such schools should be careful, at the outset, to guard them in some such way.

V. These Schools Not Coordinate with Day Schools.

The legitimate purpose of evening schools being to supplement the day schools, and to fill up the places here and there which the day schools do not cover, it is mere absurdity so to expand and enlarge these schools as to make them co-extensive with the day schools—a sort of ghostly school system masquerading by night, the shadow, the echo, of the schools by day. If children go to school by day, they have study enough without working in the night. If they work by day, they ought to rest and not to study by night. Men and women, who are engaged in business by day, ought to be able to improve themselves in their leisure hours with all the appliances of libraries, of reading circles, of lectures, of concerts; those who need a school are the rare exception and not the rule; and, so far as they are the exception, the study required is of a very elementary character, as indicated in the early part of this discussion.

VI. Study is Work.

Those who would advocate expanding the evening schools to cover a field as broad as those kept by day, overlook the obvious truth that study is work. It has ceased to be believed by intelligent people that brain-work is not exhaustive. This statement applies to teachers, who should never be allowed to teach both by day and in the night.

VII. The Public need not Attempt to Supply Everything to Everybody.

But suppose some unusually bright and energetic young man is able to work all day and study in the evening also; suppose, further, that he has attended an evening school, fitted for college there, and even gone through college after a fashion; suppose that he presents himself as a model of what is best to be, and of what therefore ought to be; adopt the further assumption—whether or not it may seem violent—that this last supposition is true, it does not follow that it is wise to provide such a school for all boys; because in the first place, boys generally may not be so bright, or so energetic; and in the second place, the outlay required can be expended in the further improvement of the day schools with promise of vastly greater returns.

High schools as a part of the public school system have been attacked, on the ground that it is not the public duty to provide the higher education any more than it is the public duty to supply professional training in law, in medicine, or in divinity. On the other hand, the quite general maintenance of high schools has been urged as a reason for providing, at public expense, a higher training in the various mechanic arts:—that is, our industrial-education apostles say, "Since we fit boys and girls for college, we ought also to fit such as may desire it for all sorts of business." And those who make a hobby of evening schools, also set up the claim that because we provide day high schools, we ought also to set up evening high schools, in which anybody, man or woman, who wants to study Greek or Latin, French, German, geometry, phonography, and what not? —ought to have a chance to do so in the evening, at public expense, instead of getting it for himself. This means, in effect, that the public ought to provide everything for everybody, educationally; and if a man's education should be provided without limit, why not supply his clothes and board?

Now, it is not a public necessity, nor does the public good require that the citizens should all learn Greek, or German, or any of these higher branches of learning.

The day high school may be defended on other grounds. In the first place, any system of education must provide for the higher, in order to be self-sustaining, that it may supply its own teachers, instead of depending upon other schools to educate them. And in the second place, it is necessary to the public welfare that bright children should not be restrained by poverty from that progress in study for which their talents fit them.

Within their legitimate sphere, then, and surrounded with the necessary safe-guards, there is an important work for evening schools both indispensable to the community, and impossible of thorough accomplishment in any other way.

THE SCHOOL AND THE LIBRARY.

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According to the last published report (1884–5) of the Commissioner of Education, there are in the United States more than five thousand public libraries, with more than twenty million volumes. It is, therefore, a very pertinent question, in a national gathering of educators, what should be the relationship between the public libraries and the public schools? It is the purpose of this paper to outline an answer to this inquiry.

The public library would be comparatively useless without the public school. Men must know how to read before they need books. Indeed a very high order of intelligence is required before they are able to profit to any great degree by their use. There are good books and bad books, books full of truths and books not so full, books that energize and books that enervate, books on which men feed and grow wise, strong, and good, and books that render the reader weak, foolish, and vicious. Even the books that have come down to us from antiquity, sifted and tested by time, and stamped by common consent as classic, differ widely in merit. While a very large proportion of modern books have little or no permanent value, a library is, or at least may be, simply a store house in which is gathered a miscellaneous collection of books, good, bad and indifferent, ancient and modern, on subjects scientific, literary, and historical. To an ignorant man such a library is without significance or value. True the veriest boor may learn something by a visit to a botanical garden, a museum of curiosities, or a menagerie, but he will scarcely have even his wonder excited by a visit to a public library, unless it be at the folly of those who find any interest therein. Public libraries are for the educated, they follow and supplement the public schools.

If a library is to be really useful to a community, it is necessary that its readers should be specially trained for using it. They need to know not only what books are worth reading, but also how to read them. A large portion of the habitual patrons of the public library have a very low standard of choice in selecting their books. They are about as competent to select their books as sick people are to choose their medicines or children their food. When students have learned to read, and have had their thirst for books awakened, they are just as likely to read bad books as good ones. The fevered man drinks ice water to his detriment, and the hungry boy gorges himself with green fruit to his sorrow. So too, the curious child eagerly devours sensational trash, goody-goody nonsense, or poisonous literature, destructive alike of purity and strength. A part of the teacher's work is to guard him from the miasma of pernicious literature, by fostering a taste for that which is wholesome.

The teacher can suggest to pupils valuable books suitable for their age, attainments, tastes, and necessities. Many a boy has been ruined by the dime novel, who might have been saved by reading books of real adventure and true heroism, suggested to him by some thoughtful, faithful teacher. Seldom does a day pass, when the vigilant teacher has not an opportunity, either in class or in private conversation, to drop into the prepared soil of some pupil's mind a hint of some valuable book to read. When a reading class has become interested in a beautiful selection from some classic author, how natural for the teacher to say, "To-morrow I will bring from the library a volume of this author's works, and read to you another beautiful selection; some of you may wish to read the entire volume." Each reading lesson may thus unlock some fascinating alcove of the public library, and the life-long habit of reading good books be inaugurated.

Pupils of the public schools need to be shown how to consult a public library. Many who enter the not always too attractive rooms, where long rows of books peep at them from behind barred doors, or grin at them from inaccessible shelves, or stand, like well-drilled soldiers, in solemn ranks, disguised with their paper uniforms, defying recognition, are bewildered, and turn away empty. They need to be introduced to the library, to be shown its various departments and sub-divisions, its catalogues, indexes, and bulletins, and the method of using them. They need to be instructed in the art of consulting the books themselves; to have explained to them the significance of the table of contents, and of the index, if the book is so fortunate as to have one, and the value of referance, cross reference, and foot note. They should be taught the art of sampling, skipping, extracting, and comparing, and be thus inducted into the science of transferring to their minds from the printed page the "words that breathe, and thoughts that burn," and of converting them into mental furnishing, spiritual essence and practical fibre.

Men who know how to read a book with discriminating intelligence, appreciating and appropriating its best things, discovering and discarding its errors, are rare. To read well, is to think well. Few think well who have not been specially trained to think. One of the privileges of the teacher is to read to his students, to hear them read, not as a reading exercise, but as a process of training them to the profitable use of books.

Every school needs to have its own books of reference, and supplementary reading, a miniature library, which should be in daily use by the pupils, freely accessible to all, under the constant supervision and direction of the teacher. On his desk should always be found books germane to the subject he is teaching, mathematical dictionary for the arithmetic class, books of travel for geography, standard works in history and science to which students should be constantly referred for detailed statements of facts, extended illustrations, and full discussions such as are not practicable in a class-room nor appropriate for a text book.

A part of the time of many recitations may be profitably spent in hearing informal reports from the students, on what they have read in books designated by the teacher, on topics assigned for investigation, or as to what they have found of interest in their miscellaneous reading.

Topical recitations, preparation for which has been made by the pupils by the examination of books taken from the public library, are, especially for advanced classes, particularly valuable.

In Providence, Worcester, and other cities, sets of books can be taken from the public library for school use. Students who have learned to use these library books, as well as the dictionaries, cyclopædias, and books of reference belonging to the school, and who are accustomed to weekly visits to the public library, under the escort of the teacher, soon acquire intelligent skill in availing themselves of the help of books, and gain a method of reading and investigation that will insure life-long progress in the work of self-culture.

If the public library is dependent largely on the work of the public school for its usefulness to the community, so, on the other hand, is the school largely dependent for the performance of its full mission upon the work of the public library. The large body of the world's knowledge and wisdom is shut up in books. A library is a vast treasure house of information. Into it are gathered the results of ages of observation and thought. Whoever would be truly wise must be a reader of books. One of the chief functions of a school-master is to foster a thirst for learning, and initiate his students into the proper use of a library. Without this his work as a teacher is only partially done.

Very much of the work done in the school-room has a tendency to disgust pupils with books, by setting before them the mastery of the text as the chief business of life; thus study becomes a drudgery, a task, a burden, which at the earliest opportunity is abandoned. Study should be made interesting, and school work a delight, by bringing it into such relations with comprehensive reading as to show that all school exercises facilitate the intelligent use of books. The public library with its treasures should stand as the goal toward which each courser in the school race is bending.

Especially does the library lend its generous aid in preventing narrowness of view, pettiness of attainment, bigotry of opinion; and the insufferable conceit, which are the possible growths of the hot-bed of the school room. The untrained reader may have breadth without depth, the unread student may have intensity without either depth or breadth. Neither has symmetry. Thorough training in the school, supplemented by a wise and generous use of the public library, tends to give depth, breadth, and catholicity. The school trains, the library enriches.

The public library may be specially helpful to the school by the invaluable aid it can render to advanced students in the preparation of essays. The librarian, by furnishing them copious references, puts them in the way of ascertaining the best things that have already been said on the topics they propose to discuss.

In every public library there should be a department devoted to pedagogical literature. In no period of our history has there been such a demand among teachers and school officers for this class of books. It is one of the most encouraging signs of the times; and to foster the movement, deepening and directing it, is an urgent duty of the hour. In what better way can this be done than by setting apart in every public library an alcove for such publications? Such a collection of books would develop among teachers a professional spirit, and would give to the reading public a more definite knowledge of the ideal of culture towards which the more aggressive teachers are aiming.

THE PLACE MANUAL TRAINING SHOULD OCCUPY IN A SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

MANUAL EDUCATION IN URBAN COMMUNITIES.

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As we pass from rural districts and small villages to large towns and cities, the need of what is called manual education, what I should prefer to call mechanical education, increases palpably and rapidly; while the difficulty and relative cost of instituting and maintaining the required services of instruction diminish in an almost equal ratio. It is, therefore, the easier part of the general subject, which has been assigned to me, this morning.

In the country, the boy finds a hundred opportunities alike at work and at play, for acquiring much of that which can only be given to the city boy by way of formal instruction. Whether in his daily stint of labor, upon the farm, about the house, the barn, the sheds, or in his sports or rambles, upon the village green, over the field, through the woods—the country boy has incessant occasion to use his hands and his eyes; to observe, to plan, to do.

It would not become us, as teachers, to admit that what is thus done, is as well done as it would be if the foundation were properly laid in systematic instruction; that the boy can, for himself, or under the guidance of older persons, themselves untrained to teach, themselves largely unintelligent as to means and processes, often working by "rule of thumb" and pursuing purely traditional methods : that the boy can under such conditions, either accumulate knowledge or acquire skill and training, as well and rapidly as he would under good tuition. We all know that one may play at games or work at tasks for years, without learning in the result, to do either as well as might be accomplished in a single year under a true master, a master both of the special arts involved and of the greater art of teaching. No one can have widely observed mankind without being painfully impressed by the obtuseness and perverseness which cause advantages near at hand to be lost, the plainest reasons for the phenomena of daily life to be overlooked, the most natural and direct ways of doing things to be neglected for stupid and clumsy and wasteful methods, all from the lack of elementary instruction in first principles, and the formation of habits of observation and reflection, under systematic tuition.

Yet in spite of the deficiencies which remain, after almost any amount of spontaneous practice, at work or play, or practice under direction from those who are masters neither of the special arts involved nor of the general art of teaching, what the country boy enjoys in the way of training hand and eye to be true servants of the mind; what he enjoys in the way of opportunities and incentives for making the mind itself the real master of life, through a well-rounded and harmonious development of all the powers, through the creation of the spirit of self-reliance, through the exercise given to the constructive and executive faculty, is almost infinitely greater than that which falls to the lot of the unhappy city boy of to-day. Out of school, what has the latter to do with himself, his time, or the energy given him, as we are wont to say, for some good purpose, though it would puzzle the most devout and the most ingenious to tell for what purpose energy should have been given to a boy condemned to live in a modern city?

Work he can not, for, except in the rarest instances, there is nothing useful for him to do. No matter how poor or even how poverty-stricken his family, it would be almost impossible for him to contribute to the common means. In the olden time, such a boy could have helped father or mother to spin or weave. To-day, one buying flax or cotton or wool to work upon, in the intervals of schooling, could not get back the cost of his material in the price of his product, sold in competition with the output of the giant factory and its power looms. In the olden time, such a boy could have carved in wood or worked on metal, or have helped his father make furniture or boots, or gloves or hats in the family home. To-day, nearly every art of domestic manufacture has utterly disappeared, leaving not a trace behind. It is almost impossible now, for even the women of the family to find any work by which they can add the most trifling amount to the common means.

So highly organized is modern industry, so exacting are its requirements, that no one wants the fragments of a boy's time, for any productive purpose. A lad who cannot give his whole day, is not, in one case in a hundred, worth having around.

Let us pause a moment to consider what this means. A generation ago, not in the country only, but in every city and town, there was an abundance of useful work to occupy the time and energy of almost every school-boy out of school. These tasks constituted a most useful part of his training. They wrought into the very fabric of his being the idea and sentiment of a common family interest; they gave scope and play to the creative and constructive faculty; they trained eye and hand to accuracy and precision; they taught the child to respect toil and to value the fruits of toil; they sweetened the bread of poverty; they made the sleep of childhood sounder. To-day, under the new conditions of production, it would, in almost every city home, cost more to keep a boy usefully employed than to feed him in idleness.

Do you say, "Well then, let him play, if he cannot work"? I answer that, in our modern cities, even out-door play, of any satisfactory sort, is scarcely practicable. Search the city of Boston on a pleasant Saturday afternoon; and out of thousands of boys, who should be doing something with energy and enthusiasm, their muscles all strung, their blood tingling in their veins, you will not find one in fifty doing anything which would be even a poor caricature of country sport. On the famous Common, you will see two or three balls being pitched or knocked about, while a large crowd of idlers look on. In a few vacant and unfilled lots, you will find a very poor game of base ball or foot ball going on. Some scores of lads have, perhaps, had the moral courage and mental initiative to go upon tramps into the country. All the rest are either walking the streets, or loafing in the parks, or hanging about the house. Of this last, by far the greatest class, some are lounging, moody, bored, and discontented; some are revenging their unhappy lot by pestering their mothers and the smaller children; some are further muddling their brains by reading or study, of which they have already had too much.

Such and no greater are the opportunities and incentives afforded the city boy of to-day for acquiring knowledge of things, for training the perceptive powers, for forming habits of observation, for discriminating between phenomena and interpreting their just significance, for exercising the constructive and creative faculty, which is the most godlike thing in man. This brief survey will, I trust, be held to justify my assertion that, as we pass from rural districts and small villages to large towns and cities, the need of what is called manual education, in connection with the school system, palpably and rapidly increases.

On the other hand, the burden of instituting and maintaining instruction in the mechanic arts diminishes as we pass from rural to urban communities quite as rapidly as the need of such instruction increases. This is due, not alone to the comparative poverty of agricultural populations, although the inability of many districts of this class properly to support schools, even of the traditional type, constitutes one of the gravest educational problems of the time. This result is, in a much higher degree, due to the concentration of population in commercial and manufacturing communities, allowing the same amount of apparatus and supplies, and the same amount of skilled service to do a vastly greater work of instruction, than would be possible in rural districts. It is not necessary to contrast the small school-houses, widely scattered, which serve the purposes of an agricultural population, with the twelve-room buildings, thickly set, in which the children of our cities and large towns receive elementary instruction, in order to show the greatness of the advantage which would be enjoyed by communities of the class under consideration, in the matter of manual or mechanical education. The difference, in this respect, between city and country must be obvious, on the merest mention. Where children, by thousands, are concentrated in narrow districts, the question of providing the means of instruction in the mechanic arts is little more than the question whether such instruction is itself desirable. The technical teacher, who, in the country, could reach only a few small classes, for a single lesson in a week, would, in the city, find his power of instruction limited only by his own strength and vital force. The apparatus and tools, which in the country could serve but a few score of pupils, would, in the city, serve as many hundreds. Even the supplies, purchased at wholesale, and requiring little transportation, would cost the city school board much less than the rural school committee.

So great is the total effect of these differences of condition, that it may be safely said that a city of ten thousand inhabitants, or more, could provide instruction in a variety of mechanic arts, under the best teachers, with the choicest apparatus, tools, and machinery, and could carry its pupils from stage to stage through an extended;mechanical education, at less expense than would be required to give the same number of pupils, in rural districts, a rude course in a single art, under the cheapest arrangements that could be made as to teachers, tools and supplies.

The concurrence of the two conditions indicated, namely, the greater need of manual or mechanical education in cities and large towns, and the diminished cost of instituting and maintaining such a system of instruction in communities of this class, and, I might add, the greater financial resources there available to do whatever may be fairly determined to be for the good of the rising generation: this concurrence of favorable conditions, seems to me to establish the expediency of beginning in our cities and large towns whatever it may be decided to undertake in this matter. Here it is the machinery should be earliest set up and put to working. Here it is we may most fully and conclusively determine the capabilities of the system, ascertain the unfortunate liabilities, if any, to which it is subject, and create that body of experience which is essential to its full and perfect development. Here, too, it is we should train the teachers who will be needed for the extension of this kind of instruction, outwards, stage by stage, from more to less compact communities.

Whether, within urban communities, the development of the system of manual education should be by a gradual extension downwards from the high school, or upwards from the grammar school, is a question deserving the careful consideration of all interested in this subject, a question on which light may perhaps be thrown by experience. The most popular procedure at the present time, in promotion of manual education, appears to be the institution of high schools of the mechanic arts, as in St. Louis, Chicago, and other Western cities, the question of such instruction in the grammar schools being left to the future.

In Boston, in addition to a small private high school of mechanic arts, we have introduced instruction in carpentry, to a limited extent, into the grammar schools.

When Lady Hamilton asked the sailor who had brought her a message from Lord Nelson, whether he would have a glass of ale, or a little rum, or should she brew him a punch, Jack, with a proper pull at his forelock, replied, "Well, your ladyship, I'll take the ale now; and be sipping my grog while your ladyship mixes the punch." I am disposed to think that we should deal with this question of the introduction of manual education in our schools, in somewhat of Jack's rather grasping spirit: that we should take all we can get, and this, as soon as possible. Not that I am anxious to hasten the complete result, viz., the universal introduction of manual instruction into our public schools, for at least, all scholars above the age of twelve; not that I am sanguine of immediate success in whatever may be to this end undertaken; not that I overlook the probability that some part of what may be attempted will result in failure; but it seems to me that, where so great a task is before us, the sooner we get to work, somewhere, somehow, almost anywhere, anyhow, the better. In such a case there is more waste in delay, in doing nothing, than in many mistakes made in doing something. This is not a situation to which Davy Crockett's maxim applies; first be sure you are right and then go ahead. The very thing we have to do is to make experiments, to create experience.

We know we are right in our general principles. The best expert opinion coincides with the increasing conviction of the community, that the traditional curriculum of the schools needs to be essentially modified, through the introduction of studies and exercises which shall train eye and hand; which shall cultivate the perceptive faculties, so long and grievously neglected; which shall create a respect for manual skill and dexterity, and for taste in design; which shall afford scope and play for the creative and constructive instinct. Just what these studies and exercises shall be, in character and order of succession, is to be determined by experiment rather than by forecast. The question is one which requires to be worked out, rather than to be thought out. The most that is likely to be done in the immediate present will not be more than is needed to accumulate the experience, which shall determine the direction which our efforts in this interest shall ultimately take.

One thing seems reasonably well estalished, namely, that carpentry and wood-turning are the arts with which we may most advantageously begin with grammar-school pupils. Work in these lines is sure to interest both scholar and parents. It is easier to get competent teachers than in any other arts. The expense of machinery, tools, and supplies comes fairly within the means of any urban community. The practical value of the acquirement of these arts is palpable to the least instructed mind. The last consideration is, however, one on which the advocates of manual training must not greatly dwell, since the strength of their position lies in the claim that such studies are, truly, purely, and highly educational, being actually required, in addition to the familiar studies of the public school, to secure the complete and harmonious development of the powers and faculties of the mind.

That the introduction of these or any other mechanic arts into the grammar schools would give new direction and a fresh impulse to the study and practice of drawing, is certain.

I agree with Dr. Runkle, that drawing in the public schools, not directed upon work in the mechanic arts, is not one-half of what it would be as an educational force, had it a definite object. I look with confidence to see this most interesting and promising study receive a new inspiration, wherever the use of tools is introduced into the schools.

One thing more I will say, though not without hesitation, regarding the inauguration of this system, which is, that the friends of the new education should refuse to accept less than two exercises of an hour and a half or two hours each, per week, in the mechanic arts. Wherever committee-men and teachers are not prepared to grant so much as this, cannot see their way to clear at least this amount of space for the mechanic arts, it would be well in my judgment, though I speak with some hesitation, to await a more fortunate time, and a better disposition on the part of those who control the schools.

MANUAL EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

Whatever other arts may, in the development of this system, come to be associated with carpentry and wood turning in the grammar schools, it appears to me that, at the very beginning, we may demand a complete course of both wood and metal-working for that smaller number of advanced pupils who go forward into the high school. If it is for the interest of the State that these young persons shall, at the public expense, be further educated and cultivated on one side of their minds, it is not equally, but doubly, desirable that the education and cultivation of their other powers and faculties should be kept up in the high school. It is little less than a shame that we should graduate from these schools pupils who are highly accomplished in language, composition, and declamation, but are less keen in perception, less careful in observation, weaker in practical judgment, with less of visual accuracy, less of manual dexterity, less of the executive faculty—the power, that is, of doing things instead of merely thinking about them, talking about them, and writing about them—than the children of the ordinary ungraded district school.

Whatever views one may hold of the mutual relations of the child and the State, in the grammar school, it can be gainsaid by no one that, if the community is to be called upon to carry the more favored children forward, through long and expensive courses of advanced education and training, those men who, on behalf of the community, direct the schools of this class have the absolute right to impose whatever terms and conditions, to exact and to withhold whatever the public interest may require. Cherishing the views I do as to what constitutes a complete education, I would allow no pupil to graduate from a high school who was not as proficient and exact in mechanical as in grammatical exercises; I would not make myself responsible for adding to the number of youth who have been trained in description, without having been taught to observe the things they should describe; who have spent years in the art of rhetorical elaboration and ornamentation, without acquiring any adequate body and substance upon which to exercise those arts; who are clever in dialectics and declamation, but purblind in perception and feeble in execution; great at second-hand knowledge, but confused and diffident when thrown upon their own resources; skilful with the pen, but using any other tool awkardly and ignorantly.

The mischief we can possibly do, through a one-sided education, to those who stop short with the grammar school, is, fortunately, limited. These children, escaping from tuition before they have got their growth, and going at once to work, have an opportunity to cure in part the faults, and supply in part the deficiencies of their education. That work, of course, does them far less good, and they do it far less well, than if the foundation had been laid in early youth, under proper guidance and instruction. Yet, at least, they are saved from growing up and growing out all on one side, like the unhappy youth who are destined to go on, for three or seven years more, rehearsing the opinions of others; memorizing facts ascertained by others; practicing a stimulated passion in declamation, an artificial taste in composition; making much of grammatical niceties, painfully polishing periods without much regard to the thoughts these should enclose; going over and over a weary round of second-hand information and second hand ideas, and acquiring a few purely conventional accomplishments.

We hear much of the vulgar contempt of so-called self-made men towards scholars; of their distrust, in practical matters, of school-made and book-read men. Doubtless some part of this feeling is of vulgar origin, due to jealousy, envy, or ignorance; but a far better part I believe to be perfectly just, arising from a correct apprehension of the natural effects of long continued study and exercise within the traditional lines of high school and college instruction, producing a disposition to hesitate, to procrastinate, to multiply distinction, to refine in preparation, to stand shivering on the verge of action. Doubtless, many school and college-bred men, when thrown into action, are found to have enough of robust manhood to overcome the ill effects of their early training, especially if in school or college they were not very good scholars. But would it not be better from the first to associate with the dialectical, grammatical, and rhetorical exercises of our schools and with the perhaps necessary acquisition of much mere gazetteer, cyclopedia, and dictionary information, studies and exercises which shall not only prevent the formation of distinctly bad habits of mind and will, but shall positively develop those powers and faculties which the very first access to the duties of professional and business life shows to be the most useful of our endowments?

For one, I believe that the introduction of the new studies and exercises which we are advocating will not prove a mere addition to the work of the school or college. I believe it will also profoundly modify the instruction given within traditional line. Boys and young men who have learned to observe for themselves, to acquire knowledge at first hand, to give effect to their purposes, and a form to their ideas; who have been accustomed to impose their will upon matter and to make it take shape to suit their intellectual conceptions; who know how to project, to plan, to execute; will have little patience with much that makes up the traditional curriculum. They will demand to be brought face to face with facts. They will insist upon going to the bottom of any matter they have to deal with. That genuine intellectual honesty, which is the first fruit of the objective study of concrete things, will make them scorn to defend, in dialectical and rhetorical practice, theses which they do not thoroughly believe. They will grudge every hour spent in memorizing matters for which they can at any time resort to the gazetteer or cyclopedia. It will be hard to impose on such students with sounding names, deceive them with sophistries, or bear them down by authority. They will care much for principles; little for the manner in which these may be dressed up for effect, or tricked out for public admiration.

The access of bodies of students of this character cannot but profoundly modify the subjects and the methods of instruction of any school they enter; and every change wrought by the infusion of such a spirit will be sure to prove of benefit to scholar and school alike.

WHAT PART SHALL GIRLS TAKE?

I have, thus far, spoken only of the educational needs of our boys. How far the traditional courses of study shall be modified in the case of girls, is a nicer question, respecting which it will not be unreasonable to await light from whatever experiments may be tried with children of the other sex. It would seem to be the dictate of wisdom to solve the easier part of the problem first.

That young women may become heartily interested in studies and exercises in mechanic arts, and make themselves proficient at least in carpentry, is established by our experience at the Normal schools of Bridgewater and Salem, Massachusetts. That such instruction, for those who are to become teachers, yields a professional accomplishment of prime importance, enabling the school mistress, especially in the rural districts, to make and repair much of the apparatus for teaching natural and physical science, is evident. This work can not be too strongly pressed, in all normal and training schools.

SEWING AND COOKING.

As regards grammar schools, I confess that my ambition would be satisfied, for the present, by the introduction of sewing and cooking, until the full capabilities of these two kinds of school exercises should be fully developed and fairly tested. The triumphant success which has attended the extension of sewing through the lower grades of the grammar schools of Boston, and the admirable results which have been attained, so far as the cutting, fitting, and making of plain garments have been introduced into the upper grades of three districts, have put this school exercise beyond the stage of experiment. No intelligent and candid person, who thoroughly knows the work done in this department, any longer questions either the practical utility of the results achieved or the appropriateness of sewing in the school curriculum, as a strictly educational agency.

Of equal promise of good to our citizenship and, as I believe, not less suited to the prime purposes of instruction, is the newer school exercise of cooking. So transcendent are the social, sanitary, and economic advantages of instruction in this art, in enabling the very poor to husband their resources, in preserving the health of the community, in removing baleful and destructive appetites, in promoting the comfort and decency of the family home, that any educator would be abundently justified, were that necessary, in making this an exception to the rule that all school exercises should be distinctly educational. Especially in view of the great and painful change in our citizenship which is making such rapid progress before our eyes, does it become a patriotic duty to seize upon the only opportunity which the State enjoys of reaching the members of the rising generation, and to employ some portion of the time of the children in the public schools for instruction in domestic economy and in the art of preparing food. The practical value of such an accomplishment, in the degree in which it may be acquired in a single brief course, is incontestably greater, to any girl coming from a poor and squalid home, as so many tens of thousands do, than all else she could possibly learn in school, beyond reading, writing, and plain ciphering. The importance to the State of such a girl acquiring this art, is, from a sanitary point of view, from an economic point of view, and from a political point of view, greater even than the importance of her acquiring the elementary knowledge just referred to. We are threatened, to-day, in the United States, with a lowering of the standard of living, and with an impairment of the sense of social decency which would together constitute a greater industrial and political evil than we have known. All the letters that ever were taught in our public schools will not do so much to oppose and counteract the unfortunate liabilities, as the two arts of sewing and cooking, properly taught under the authority of the State.

But we are not driven to defend the introduction of cooking into the public schools as an invasion of the proper field of education, justified by dire necessity. No one can spend an hour in the cooking schools of Boston, as they have been maintained, first, through the philanthropic enterprise of Mrs. Hemmenway, and afterwards at the expense of the city, without being impressed by the very high educational value of the instruction given.

As a great object lesson in chemistry; as a means of promoting care, patience and forethought; as a study of cause and effect; as a medium of conveying useful information, irrespective altogether of the practical value of the art acquired; the short course which alone the means at command allowed to be given to each class of girls has constituted, I do not doubt, the best body of purely educational training which any girl of all those classes ever experienced within the same number of hours.

I will mention but a single point. The very large range in the Tennyson street cooking school, was, during the last school year, ready to cook any of the dishes that might be prepared by the pupils, from half past nine in the morning until half past four in the afternoon, for five days in the week, for thirty-eight weeks. Fires were made, the dampers and drafts were controlled by the pupils, under the direction of the teacher. The amount of coal consumed in this time was considerably less than two tons. Now, if any unhappy householder here present will compare this expenditure of fuel with what takes place in his own kitchen, he can not fail to be impressed by a sense of the prudence, patience, care, forethought, intelligence, and skill involved in keeping up such a service at so small a cost. If this be not educational, pray what is education? And what is true of this is equally true of all the other exercises in the cooking school, under proper tuition.

KINDS OF SCHOOLS TO BE INTRODUCED, AND PRACTICAL METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

MISS L. A. FAY, SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS.

An *ideal* course of study, in which manual training is recognized as necessary to the complete development of the child, and given the time its relative value demands, is, in most places, at present unattainable. Many experiments in this direction are being tried in our schools, and their results, with those obtained by the few who propose to work out this problem under favorable conditions, for the benefit of the public schools, will prove that the *whole* child is worth educating; and, that, to do this, is not only the right but the duty of the public schools.

The average pupil spends eight or nine years in the primary and grammar schools, and may receive manual training by means of writing, drawing with all that it comprises, sewing, and the use of mechanical tools.

The place of writing, as a feature of manual training, needs no mention. Every live teacher recognizes the fact that good writing is the result of correct position and movement, and aims to secure it by training the muscles of the hand and arm.

Drawing, viewed in this light, with all that belongs to right teaching of it, claims our attention, because it is the chief means of manual training in the lower grades, and the foundation of its best advanced work.

Since drawing is an expression of form, the knowledge of form must be obtained from the solid before it can be expressed. Manual training begins with this form-study when the child first enters school.

What we have done in this direction convinces me that a radical change should be made in the first year's course of study, particularly if children are received at the age of five. The work and methods of this grade are already greatly modified in many sections, by an earnest attempt to base all teaching on the needs of the child's mind; yet the highest compliment many first-grade teachers desire, or could receive, would be, "She teaches reading beautifully!"

The principle that a child's most complete development is through his *activities*, is everywhere accepted. Yet, while the fact that these activities are not best reached by reading and writing is admitted, we go on making the power to read and write the end of the first year's work.

With most of us, the kindergarten cannot, at present, become a department of the public schools. But upon its principles should be based the first year's course of study.

Such a course, in the hands of teachers who are imbued with the kindergarten spirit, and who understand its aims and methods as thoroughly as they do the conditions of a primary school, will develop the child's power to think and to express his thoughts, as the present course never can; and it will also lay a strong foundation for manual training.

In the first and second years, the conception of form is obtained by handling the solid, and expressed by modeling in clay, laying sticks and tablets, folding and cutting paper, and by drawing. (Clay forms, charts 1 and 2.)

Let the drawing be upon paper from the first. A child five years old finds no difficulty in drawing with a lead pencil, if he is taught good position and free movement, patiently and persistently, and a slate has no business in the school-room.

In all primary schools some time is taken for busy work. Much may be done for manual training by systematizing this busy work and making it an application of the drawing lessons, not a device for keeping restless children out of mischief.

"But," says the earnest, hard-worked teacher, "How can anything that really counts for work be given to thirty children in their seats, while twenty are occupying my attention on the floor?"

I answer, by teaching the doing which constitutes this busy work in the time of the regular drawing lessons, until the pupils are able to work independently.

Said one of our teachers of the embroidering: "Those little cards are the best means of discipline I have ever used."

Cutting and pasting are as yet the best manual training in the third and fourth years. (3rd and 4th charts.)

During the first and second years, the child expresses in clay his conception of the geometric solids as wholes, and its use is discontinued when he knows these solids.

A part of the time devoted to drawing will be well spent in the continued use of clay.

The forms should now be built up by packing on bits of clay, using both hands constantly. We ask a place for this work, because of its relation to the development of the eye, mind, and particularly, the muscles of both hands. Those experienced in this building with clay, claim that it is the best possible means of training both hands. For this reason alone, it seems worth while to overcome the difficulties that will arise, and continue the use of clay as long as possible. How long is a question to be answered by results.

Whatever increases the efficiency of the left hand is worth doing for its effect on that hand alone. If my left hand were as much my servant as my right, I should gain minutes in every hour. Only vigorous and systematic effort will give this power Is it not worth acquiring?

In the fifth year, working drawings are made from the simple geometric solids, and the making of these from their developments a most practical feature of drawing is commenced. This making, with the paper cutting and pasting for designs and clay, constitutes sufficient manual work for the fifth and sixth years. (5th and 6th charts, designs, cross steps.)

After the fifth year, the systematic study of working drawings occupies one third the time of drawing, and each object studied should be *made* by the pupils, whenever possible. (Objects from developments.)

In the last year, it is desirable for each pupil, to make something, showing some practical use of drawing.

With this end in view, the girls use their original designs for decorative purposes, while the boys make whatever objects they choose, always drawing first the plan from which they work. (illustrate.)

By making these objects, the fact is emphasized that directions can be received, or one's own thought expressed, by working drawings. The pupil also learns that tools and instructions as to their use are needed, to produce good work.

The grammar-school lessons in mechanical drawing should prepare the boys, who go to the manual classes, to make, without special instruction' the drawings from which they work. To do this, T squares, triangles, and boards should be used.

In the high school, a pupil, who has studied mechanical drawing throughout the course, should be able to make, from his own sketches, working drawings from which a machine could be made, or the plans, elevations, and perspective drawings of a house that he has designed.

The free-hand training should give the power to see values and express them broadly, not to make a few pretty things.

Sewing commences in the fourth year, and should be taught, step by step, as systematically as any other study. (illustrate.)

In our schools, the time given is one hour per week; the outfit called for, thimble; paper of needles; blue, red, yellow, and white thread, No. 40; pins; and one-half yard of half-bleached cotton cloth. The teacher explains each new stitch by making it with colored worsted on this coarse canvas, held by the frame, in sight of the entire class. Each stitch is learned on the *practice* cloth, and applied directly in making some simple article. The first year's work is to fold, baste, backstitch, and overcast on pieces of cloth, to fold, narrow-hem, and hem a handkerchief.

A wide hem is folded, hemmed, and applied, by making a bag. Over-and-over sewing and basting are followed by the making of a pillow-case. The fifth year calls for material for aprons. To be able to make an apron, gather or running-stitch must be learned, to lay gathers, and to baste and sew them on to a band.

Stitching, felling, tucking, catstitching, cross and feather stitching, occupy the second term; darning, patching, and joining pieces bring us to the sixth year, in which buttonholes are allowed one term.

Next, cutting by patterns and marking seams are taught; and each pupil makes a garment from pattern, doing her own cutting, marking, and basting, and using, as far as possible, all stitches learned.

This elementary course should be followed in the upper grades, if desired, by instruction in cutting to measure, in making dresses, and in more elaborate needle-work and knitting.

It would be absurd for me to follow the gentlemen to whom we have listened this morning, with any theories of mine for teaching boys to work in wood or metal. I can only state, for the encouragement of those who feel that small beginnings are useless, what has been done with a little money in a small city. An appropriation of $1000 was made in March, 1886, and an instructor engaged for three days in the week. The school opened in September, with ninety-six pupils, volunteers from the ninth grammar grade and first and second years in the high school. These were divided into eight classes, each receiving one lesson per week. An outfit of thirteen benches, thirteen sets of tools, and cupboards for keeping each pupil's work, was provided. This cost one half the appropriation, and the remainder carried the experiment through its first year.

Precision and accuracy have been required from the first. The teacher holding that, unless each step is taken correctly, both the mental and manual training are bad.

On the walls are hung these plates.

The first, because simplest lesson, the use of the hammer, is taught in a set of boxes of prepared material. (illustrate.) The use of try-squares is taught in lining, at every quarter-inch around a block; of the gauge in gauging at every sixteenth of an inch around a block.

Saws and planes are explained, and cutting to exact width and length learned.

The knowledge gained is applied by each pupil, in making a set of five boxes of various sizes. (illustrate.)

Next, surface planing is taken up, and a set of five blocks made; block-planing being taught by planing the ends. (illustrate.)

The study of joints is followed by their application to boxes and various useful articles (illustrate.)

A Saturday afternoon class for younger boys has shown that a profitable beginning can be made by boys of eleven or twelve, but not with those of eight. One of these little lads, when told that he was to take lessons Saturday afternoons, declared that it was mean to take away a fellow's Saturdays, and leave him no time for play. This is his latest effort, (illustrate) and when making objects of this kind now, he is not satisfied with working Saturday afternoon, but begs permission to work nights after school.

Some conclusions have been drawn from the experiments of this year, that we would like to make the basis of the manual work that the increased appropriation of 1887 will enable us to do.

Some of the simplest work, requiring no bench and causing no disturbance, can be taught in the regular classes. While the girls of the sixth and seventh grades are sewing, the boys can be taught to use the rule, gauge, and try-square, squaring with both knife and pencil, and to cut to a line with the jack-knife. Pieces prepared in this manner may be taken home, and with previous instruction put together successfully. By doing this we reach a class of boys, which will never enter the grades from which they would be sent to the manual school. They leave school early, compelled to add their earnings to the family income, or ashamed because they are too dull to be promoted with their mates. The chances are that the first will be unskilled, poorly-paid laborers all their lives, while the latter lounge about the street corners, as lazily as they leaned on their desks at school. Bringing a taste of manual training to these boys would open new possibilities to many of them.

This work shows what a boy of this class can do. Slow at his books, with delicate health, and an impediment in his speech, at fourteen he is in the fourth grade. He joined the Saturday afternoon class of younger boys, and has spent not only Saturdays, but his vacations, and every hour he could get after school at this work. He will never reach even the eighth grade, but he has found something in which he can excel.

From the two higher grammar classes, pupils should be sent once a week for their manual lesson to the regular instructor, and should, by the end of the second years' work, obtain such command of tools as to be able to make good joints and any articles needed on the school premises. They should also be able to keep their tools in condition to do such work.

The high-school course should consist of daily lessons in the workshop and in mechanical drawing. Turning in wood, pattern-making, and iron-work in all its details, should be studied.

A boy who has completed such a course can work as skilfully with wood or metals, as one who has mastered arithmetic and book-keeping can with figures, and he often excels in mental work the boy who has studied only books. But our right to place manual training in the public schools is not based on the fact that it will make good workmen.

We claim that it is needed to give every person an intelligent understanding of things he deals with every day. A man should be as much ashamed of ignorance of the simplest facts and principles of mechanics, as he would be of not understanding one of the political or financial questions of the day.

A college professor is the last man who would be supposed to feel the need of manual training. Yet, recently, one obtained the privilege of working at the lathe in a shop, that he might be master of all the work done by classes in his laboratory. In my own teaching, I found when planning and criticizing objects made by the boys, that I needed to understand making as a workman does. To learn this, I began using carpenters' tools in a friend's shop. The knowledge I thus gained helped drawing, not only where construction was studied, but in every room in the city. The value of this work, as an aid to my teaching, was so great that my Saturday mornings since the manual school opened have been spent at a bench, in a class composed of school-boys and grammar-masters. From my observation and experience in this class, I am convinced that in no other study is every faculty so entirely employed.

The whole attention must be upon the work, and it must be done just right, or it is worthless.

A boy can keep an eye, or an eye and a half, on his neighbor's business, and learn a lesson in history or arithmetic, but when he has spoiled three or four hours' work, by having fun as he saws or planes, he decides that it pays to mind what he is doing, and for this reason the manual-training school disciplines itself.

Since such development and self-discipline are gained by manual training, should it be restricted to boys? Why should not girls be taught the use of tools, wood carving, clay modeling, technical design, and practical cooking, in connection with chemistry?

That all this can be done, and at the same time proficiency attained in science, mathematics, and English, has been proved; and the best answer that the advocates of manual-training can give to those who question its utility and fitness, is, to point to the splendid results obtained by those pioneers, to whose thought and labor manual-training owes its position to-day.

THE FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

PROF. C. M. WOODWARD, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Education is too large to be inclosed in the walls of a school-room; hence I shall speak chiefly of school-education, and shall not attempt a new definition of even that. We are pretty well agreed on certain elements and spheres of development. The universe has two spheres, one of matter, the other of mind. To be prepared for one's work in both, one must be trained in both. Perception, memory, and judgment are to be developed, cultivated, and trained. These mental faculties, however divided and subdivided, are to be treated in a rational manner, that the mind may possess what we call power. This is the choicest fruit of education, and it may be secured—that is, we may suppose that it is secured—through the instrumentality of a universe, both of matter and of mind. quite unlike the one in which we live; a universe whose physical and mental laws, and facts, and phenomena are different from ours. But a being thus trained would possess power only in the sphere in which it had been trained. In another and different universe it would be powerless.

Consider a moment the condition of a being, say an angel from the heights of heaven, a bright, intelligent spirit from that celestial sphere where our material, sensuous laws do not obtain, transported for the first time to this earth and incarnated as we are. How utterly powerless would this powerful being be! He would not know the meaning of a single sight or sound, nor odor, nor flavor; he would not know up from down, heat from cold, heavy from light, long from short; he would be in truth as helpless as an infant; and he could begin life here in no way but as an infant. In fact he could begin only as we began; grow in knowledge and power as we grew; develop and acquire culture and skill as we have acquired them. Bacon was right then when he said that "knowledge is power." The things we really know are not the things we have merely read about, or heard about, but the things we have lived, have experienced, have been sensible of. All that the angel could bring from another sphere would be capacity for power, not power itself. Power over things external to one's self can come only through growth and personal experience of external things, as an oak can come from an acorn only by going through the whole process of growth.

A knowledge of the facts, phenomena, and relations of the mental and physical worlds in which we are to live are then the basis of our power; and in so far as we devote ourselves to the acquisition of facts, or to the observation of the phenomena and relations of other worlds or of imaginary worlds which are unlike ours, then so far our labor is without fruit.

Now, a thousand to the contrary notwithstanding, I insist that public education should aim to develop power,—power to take care of one's self; power to discharge one's duties to his family and to the State; power to make the most of one's self.

How shall this power be developed? One says by studying the orators, poets, and historians; another says by learning to read, write, and cipher; another, by learning to shoot, to ride, to row, to sail, to swim, to vault, to box, to run races, to drive a four-horse chariot; still another says power is to be developed by going into the streets and sharpening one's wits by contact with all sorts of men; and another, by going into the fields and studying plants and insects, the earth beneath his feet, and the heavens above his head. In all these paths powerful men have walked, and their admirers have not been slow to claim for each method in turn a preeminent value.

A judicial mind at once sees that all are right and all are wrong. It would be clearly unfortunate to train all by any one of these methods. Power is not all of one kind, and the world wants a great variety of powers, and some who would fail by one road may succeed by another.

But how is one to know which path to take, without first trying them all, since not the road alone, but the traveler is to be taken into account? Clearly, intelligent choice can be exercised only when the chief characteristics of both roads and traveler are fairly comprehended. Education then must be "all round," and many sided, unless the right of choice is denied. At this point I think we can all agree. But now comes the question, How much of this must the school undertake, and how much must be left to the home and other influences? Here we shall differ. One points to the past and says, Thus did our fathers, and so must we; as though we who refused to do other things as our fathers did them, and who persist in doing a thousand things which our fathers never dreamed of, must still conduct school education in the old-fashioned way. To speak truly, it is as absurd to consult Plato, or Cicero, or Milton, or Sam Johnson, or Ben Franklin, or Daniel Webster as to how we shall teach school in this year of our Lord, 1887, as it would be to consult them as to how we shall build our houses, cultivate our crops, fight our battles, travel over land and sea, communicate our thoughts, light our streets, or amuse our children.

"In these days of repeating-rifles, Harvard sent me and my class-mates out into the strife equipped with shields and swords and javelins," said Charles Francis Adams, Jr., in his remarkable Phi Beta Kappa address.

"We cannot continue in this age full of modern artillery to turn out our boys to do battle in it, equipped only with the sword and shield of the ancient gladiator," says Huxley, using the same striking figure.

Sir Lyon Playfair changes the metaphor but is none the less expressive. What he protests against is not literary study, but the exclusion of those modern subjects which bear directly upon the duties and responsibilities of life. He says: "In a scientific and keenly competitive age an exclusive education in the dead languages is a perplexing anomaly. The flowers of literature should be cultivated and gathered, though it is not wise to send men into our fields of industry to gather the harvest, when they have been taught only to cull the poppies and to push aside the wheat."—*British Association Address,* 1885.

In an industrial scientific age, in which ecclesiasticism is either dead or dying, in which monarchism is fading away with the decay of the warlike spirit, in which all men are equal before the law, we must invent, among other inventious, our institutions of education. Nothing can be more appropriate than the figure about putting new wine into new bottles if we would preserve the wine.

What then shall the school attempt to give?

There can be no difference in regard to the need of the "three R's." Neither should there be any difference of opinion as to the propriety of studying literature, geography, and history, as pupils become old enough to do so with profit. By all means give them Bryant, and Milton, and Longfellow, and Shakespeare, and Homer; and give frequent, nay, daily practice in writing English, after the model of our best prose writers.

But shall we stop here with our curriculum? Shall we omit a systematic study of the elements of natural science, by the rational method of things before words? Shall we forget that the pupils have hands as well as eyes and ears? Shall we exclude all the tools, because the pen has been declared the mightiest of weapons? In this forceful age, when we do few things directly and most things by instruments, by tools, by mechanism, by directing the willing forces of nature, until one "skilful hand and cultured brain" can outdo a thousand Grecian or Egyptian slaves—shall we refuse that manual training, which should be one of the inalienable rights of an American youth?

But to be more specific. There are many who agree with me in regard to the necessity of manual training, particularly for city boys, who nevertheless see no way for securing it at school. They take it for granted that school is the place for intellectual and moral training through the medium of books alone, and that hand training lies outside the proper functions of the school.

Dr. H. N. Hudson, the Shakespearean critic, says: "So long as people proceed upon the notion that their children's main business in this world is to shine and not to work, and that the school has it in special charge to fit them out on all points, just so long they will continue to expect and to demand of the school that which the school cannot give.

"It is, then, desirable that children should learn to think, but it is indispensable that they should learn to work; and I believe it is possible for a large, perhaps the larger portion of them to be so educated as to find pleasure in both. But the great question is, how to render the desirable thing and the indispensable thing mutually helpful and supplementary."

Rev. Edward E. Hale has pleaded eloquently for more practical training, which he also assumes is to be given at home or during vacation; and for the purpose of securing better opportunity for such training, he advocates either half-time school or longer vacations—which he would extend to twenty-nine weeks per year.—*Half-Time Schools, North American Review, November*, 1883.

Mr. Hale's position is so extreme that it almost answers itself. I am as familiar with the fortunate circumstances of a farmer's boy as Mr. Hale. I have tried the school winters, and the farm summers. I know the value of a country training, where a fond father is never tired of giving sound instruction and encouraging high aspirations. But the evils of which Mr. Hale complains are chiefly found in the city schools; they have small foothold in the country, now. Not one per cent. of the fathers in a great city can command the facilities for teaching what he says every boy ought to learn at home during vacation. Just hear him! "He must know what a bushel of wheat is when he sees it, and how a blacksmith shoes a horse. He must learn the methods of a town meeting. He must know how to milk, how to plough, how to cradle oats, how to drive, how to harness a horse, how to take off a wheel, and how to grease an axle."

It is excellent to be highly accomplished, of course, but could he not with equal propriety have said this? "He must know a salmon when he sees it, and how the sailor splices a rope. He must learn the discipline of a ship. He must learn how to dress a fish, how to set, and reef, and furl a sail; how to row and scull a boat; how to swim, and how to stop a leak."

The city boy is more likely to learn these than those, yet if he spends his vacation at home three-fourths of it is worse than wasted. No time is so fruitless of good, so fruitful of evil as the long vacation. The father generally works under such conditions that he can neither employ nor entertain his son during the day. The restraints of home are soon outgrown, and the boy is on the street guided, by "that good master, himself," learning the ways of the world under the worst possible auspices.

The answer to the question, What more shall the school undertake to do? should depend upon what, in the interest of economy, individual progress, and public policy, the school is able to do.

Mr. Hale assumes that it is for intellectual discipline alone, and that this is to be gained by reading, writing, and arithmetic. All else, whether music, literature, sewing, drawing, or object lessons, are out of place. When there are so many things as intellectual as penmanship, and as practical as banking and equation of payments, which every boy and girl should know, is there any good reason for limiting school education to the "three R's?" Is it any reason that it was so once? When Daniel Webster (Mr. Hale's readers scarcely need be told that Daniel Webster is one of his heroes) was a boy, there was not a railroad, nor a telephone, not even a telegraph or steamboat in the land. Our present methods of supplying cities with food, with fuel, with shelter, with clothing were unknown. There was not an armored ship nor a breech-loading gun, nor a dynamo in the world; there was no theory of evolution, no modern science as we now understand the term, and one-half of the present occupations of men did not exist. Are our schools to be conducted in blissful ignorance of all this? Can the ordinary parent teach his boys how to cradle oats, to make a working drawing, to braze two pieces of iron, to make and temper a chisel, to frame a joint, or to make an electric battery more readily than he can teach him how to read?

Secretary Dickinson, of the Massachusetts Board of Education, has taken the ground that the chief function of a public school is to prevent illiteracy by teaching reading. After reading, writing and arithmetic should have place; but in no direct way is it the aim of a public school to fit a boy to earn his living.

Doctor Dickinson appears to me to think that the only outcome of tool instruction is mere manual dexterity, which has no value as a means for promoting "the general development of active power." As to the need of a larger development of active power than now obtains, "of turning the learner's mind from words to things," he appears to be convinced. He says truly that, "It should not be forgotten that the conditions of knowledge require the presence to the mind of the objects and subjects to be known, and that the cultivation of active power requires a vigorous exercise of the faculties upon appropriate objects of thought." He admits that, "The pupil may become an original investigator by being trained to handle the objects of his investigations. This training leads to self-control and prepares one to take up the work of life with every prospect of success."—*Education, June*, 1887.

That is good sense, though it seems a little ambitious; still will the training be without value if the objects investigated include woods, metals, tools, and fabrics. And suppose he does more than "handle" them? Handling things is a great deal better than nothing, but to me the words suggest a very superficial treatment. In addition to handling a piece of wood or a piece of plaster, an instrument, or a tool, suppose he probes it, and tests it, and finds out the secrets of its construction, and some of its manifold uses, is it not far better than mere "handling" can be? And is it fruitless, if such investigation be not original? It is a high ambition to be original, to invent, but very little of a pupil's work can be original. He follows beaten paths in more than one study; but the work he does is original to him, in so far as he is conscious of doing things, of solving things himself; and original work of that sort, in any field, is stimulating and nutritious to the mind.

I am bound to believe that Doctor Dickinson has been misled as to the motive of shop work in schools of secondary grades, he is so afraid of trade or professional teaching—a thing which I suspect very few thoughtful people advocate in any public school, or schools for general training. And again, I see plainly that he completely fails to appreciate the fact that the fruit of judicious tool instruction is mental dexterity rather than manual dexterity.

I find myself in entire sympathy with the secretary's final statement of the end and aim of public instruction; we differ only in the means to be employed. He says: "If we desire to construct such a system of public instruction for the youth of the country as will best prepare them to discharge with efficiency and fidelity the duties of private and public life, let us make ample provision for the complete training of the powers of observation, for an accurate knowledge of facts, of analysis and comparison, for a knowledge of the relations of things, of generalization and reasoning, for a knowledge of those general truths from which the rules of conduct should be derived, and above these things for that training which leads to an all-controlling love of truth; and the youth will take their places in life, elevated above the narrowing effects of any trade, occupation, or profession, and ready to enter upon any service to which they may be called."

Amen! and amen! And by their fruits ye shall know them. I am no stranger to Doctor Dickinson's method either as a pupil or as a teacher; but I greatly fear that he is a comparative stranger to mine. If he would take one-half of the Boston boys who this year complete the grammar school course (and there ought to be about two thousand of them) and train one-half of them his way, and one-half of them my way, for three years, and then graduate them and watch their careers for ten years more, I am sure that he would agree with me, that there is not a single element of narrowness, or unmanliness, or unworthiness in manual training.

I do not wish to ignore the fact that much has been done in the right direction of adopting a programme more consonant with our platform of universal education. The demands of the age, a few years since, were recognized by a widespread attempt to introduce both natural science and industrial drawing.

The science study is in a very hopeful state, though it has suffered greatly from incompetent teachers, whose knowledge of science consisted of a few feeble ideas gathered from books and from a complete lack of that manual skill which is absolutely essential to the successful science by the method of "Things and processes." Moreover it has materially helped to make clear the demand for skill of manipulation as the condition for science study. The drawing has made splendid progress, but it has failed as a general thing to take on a universal character. It was on the one hand, specialized into what was largely imitative drawing, given in the evening to those who were at work during the day; and on the other hand, it was crowded over into the atmosphere of artistic drawing. as more consonant with the general air of gentility in the other work of the school.

I have often spoken of the comparative inutility of drawing, when not supplemented by laboratory work, or wood, or plaster, or clay, or other suitable material. No teacher, who under favorable conditions has added executive, constructive work to drawing, can be for a moment in doubt of its beneficial effect upon the drawing.

I cheerfully grant that much good has been accomplished by these movements, though I regret the use of the word "industrial" in connection with drawing. Drawing is scarcely more industrial than arithmetic. or chemistry, or physics, or penmanship. Nevertheless "industrial" drawing has helped to prepare the way for the broader and more comprehensive system of manual training, which it has been my privilege to help introduce. This is not brought forward as an exclusively industrial feature, and I decline to call a manual-training school an industrial school. In it we have endeavored to bring together the education of the hand and the education of the mind, in such a way that each is the gainer thereby. And we have found it possible to bring together into one, the two educations, which some have thought it necessary to separate. In other words we have extended our scheme of education so as to include those manual elements which are of universal utility in the education of youth.

And we have discovered (and here is the principal point in the discussion), we have found that these manual elements can, at the very time they are most needed, be as successfully and economically taught in school-rooms, by ordinary class methods, as reading or arithmetic are taught, and vastly more thoroughly and cheaply than the manual elements can be taught anywhere else. The burden of complaint has been that they have not been taught at all anywhere. There can be no comparison between two systems, one of which succeeds while the other fails.

But, it may be urged that in well-to-do families children are sometimes given manual instruction at home; and the sons have received a

species of manual training as apprentices in a commercial establishment.
It is thought that these methods are better than the methods I recom-
nend. Let me examine them.

Against the results of the family method nothing can be said, if it is
ell carried out. It may be thorough, generous, and wholesome in every
ay. It may possibly lack the spur and stimulus of a score of other
inds, what Dr. Harris so admirably calls the "leverage of the class."
it it is exceedingly expensive. None but the rich can give what we
ce within the reach of all. The cost of a private tutor always exceeds
tion fees and school taxes; much more would home manual training
eed its cost in a good school. But the supposition that home manual
ning is well done is quite unusual. Suppose rather that a father does
best and teaches his son the petty detals of his own craft or occupa-
On the average, how wretchedly narrow that training must be! In
verage family the parents are incompetent to teach much that it is
y desirable that the children should learn.

into the first public school you see, and learn the occupation, or craft,
ling of all the fathers of the boys therein. You will find that one-
f them have no well-defined craft or professional training. You
ld under the head of "clerks" and "laborers" two-thirds of the
number, if correctly reported. Now I say, suppose these men do
heir sons just what they themselves know, what a sorry prepara-
y have for an intelligent choice of occupation! It is clear that
ve no choice at all. It is merely the European idea of an inher-
upation, and must ever result in the establishment of the worst
caste distinctions.

perience of Europe has abundantly shown that home training
ot only perpetuates caste but degrades the industries of a people.
e found that even when a father has a trade and wishes to teach
on, he cannot teach it as intelligently and thoroughly as it can
in a trade school.

school is better than home training in handiwork. I will now
a manual training school is better than any system of appren-
nd hence better than any trade school.

ommercial method, of more or less formal apprenticeships, sev-
serious objections arise. First and foremost, the apprentice
to school. His mathematical, scientific, and literary training,
oment he enters upon his effort to secure manual training.
one ought to kill apprenticeship. It has degraded all mechan-
—not simply brought them into bad repute, but has actually
em—and has given rise to the notion that a mechanic needs
beyond the rudiments of the grammar school, aside from
s up at his trade.

Then again, in apprenticeship at any kind of tool work, the boy is not taught drawing as a part of his trade, and yet tool work, however skilful, without drawing is the thinnest, lowest sort of apology for manual training. Not one journeyman mechanic in a hundred is as good a draughtsman, or as intelligent in reading drawings, as the graduate of a manual training school.

Thirdly, the ordinary apprentice gets at best a very narrow kind of manual training. He is made familiar with a very limited range of work, and he is kept at that far beyond the needs of intelligent mastery, till the mechanical habits of a rapid workman are fully formed. Henceforth his handiwork is the result of habit, not of thought, and his intellectual progress as connected with his work is at an end.

Can the value of such a training be compared with that given in a school where the intellect is ever on the alert, and where we introduce the widest possible range of tools, materials, and processes?

But, it may be urged in reply to all this, that the apprentice is all the while earning some money, and again he is saving much time by getting into good paying employment.

There is truth in the first observation. The apprentice usually does get, I am sorry to say, some pay even for the first year. It may be only $50, but it is something, and it works badly in two ways. On the one side, it reconciles the parent who may be very poor, or lazy, or indifferent to the boy's highest welfare, to a very poor and unprofitable arrangement; and it may gratify the boy's dangerous appetite for spending money; on the other side, it appears to justify the employer in keeping the lad at unprogressive work, on the plea that he should earn his wages.

As to the saving of time in reaching good wages, it is very doubtful if such is the case. It is the bird in the hand in preference to several in the bush.

But there is a fourth argument against the commercial way of getting manual training, which, to some, may outweigh all the rest, serious as they appear to be, and that is this: To put a boy fourteen or fifteen years old to learn a trade as an apprentice is as a rule to commit him to that trade for life, without intelligent choice of occupation and with little chance for correcting a mistake if one is made. It is a crime against freedom and humanity.

Few people, not forced by cruel necessity, are willing to take such serious risks for such questionable gain.

There are plenty of people whose mental make-up is such that, while they may succeed fairly in other paths of labor, they are unfit to be mechanics. They have not the ability, the proper mental qualities. To set such people to learn trades is most unfortunate. They are sure to be low-grade, indifferent workmen, always struggling against a fate, which a tter knowledge of their capacities would have avoided. The fact is it, until one has had an opportunity to develop his faculties, neither he his teachers can tell what his "bent" is, nor what there is in him.

he student of a manual training school takes all his work without . There is no presumption either for or against a particular line of k in life. He is as free as it is possible to be. He probably changes nind every year on the subject of what occupation he is best fitted At the end of his school course, however, he is likely to see clearly e he is strong, and where he is weak, and to direct his choice in the tion of his strength.

sum up the objections against the commercial method of getting al training as compared with the school method:

The apprentice gives up all further mathematical, scientific, and y training.

He fails to learn practical draughting.

He gets a very narrow training, limited to the details of a single often less than a single trade.

Ie hazards all on a single choice of occupation, without trust- knowledge of his abilities or his tastes.

onclusion I reach may be thus concisely stated:

very child should have systematic mental training and manual

.

iese two kinds of training, should be given side by side and eously in school.

ie manual training thus given is far more thorough, far more and far better supplemented by other culture, and is gained far aply than that gained in any other way.

iot acquainted with the various objections urged against the ion of manual training in public education. Some claim that it roduce the idea of caste. Some people do not realize the extent caste already exists in connection with education. The very suggests that, in the mind of the objector, manual training is w-grade as compared with ordinary high academic school train- oint of fact, I doubt if such is the case to any great extent; extent that it may be true, it is the result of a false estimate ianual training is. I doubt if, in any well-organized manual hool, or in the community around it, there has been any in- ie caste feeling in consequence of the school. On the contrary, e effect is just the other way. If there were any force in the would be seen more clearly in England than here. This is glish teacher of experience says:

een charged against those who advocate manual training, that they belong to that class which would deny the workingman's child a liberal education; and that by introducing it, we would perpetuate caste and hateful class distinctions. Nothing could be further from the actual facts. We say, 'Let the education of every child in the United Kingdom be as thorough and as liberal as you can make it, and after that, add to it manual training as a practical and useful finish.'

"As to its perpetuating caste, we contend that the higher the grade of the school the more thorough should be the manual training, and we believe there are few things which would more effectually break down fashionable contempt of manual labor."

Some persons seem to object to manual training as a feature of general education on educational grounds; and yet, if you examine their position carefully, you will find that the objection is more social than anything else. What is it but an inconsistent and ungenerous fling at manual training, to discredit on the one hand the claims of systematic tool instruction as one of the features of general education, and then on the other, to assert that "in schools for Indian youth, freedmen, the blind, the deaf, orphans, paupers, truants, etc., it is wise and important to combine general and industrial training." I am quoting the exact language of Supt. Æ. E. White, of Cincinnati.

You see Mr. White classifies people, and says it is wise to give manual training to some, but not to others; and the basis of his classification is not intellectual nor moral, it is social. Take the 1500 orphans at Grand College, in Philadelphia. They are between the ages of six and sixteen. Mr. White says it is wise to mix manual training with their mental training. So say I. What would Secretary Dickinson say? Now, why do Mr. White and I say, "Combine manual with their mental training"? Evidently because we believe that such a combination is most likely to accomplish the high ends so well expressed by Dr. Dickinson. Now, if it be true, as Mr. White and I believe, that the high aims of education are best secured by such a combination, why will not those ends be equally well secured to 1500 other Philadelphia boys, who are not orphans?

Here Mr. White and I part company. He says, the moment you step into a school-room where the boys are not orphans, or truants, or paupers, or negroes, or Indians, it is no longer wise and important to combine mental and manual training; the mental is better alone. I say, No! Let us give the best we have to all, whether it be the old or the new. Away with all such social distinctions. In his language, if not in his thought, Mr. White reflects upon the character and social standing of manual training. He would have it appear that it is not good enough for respectable boys; and when he sandwiches the unfortunate between truants and paupers on the one hand, and freedmen and Indian youth on the other, I cannot avoid the conclusion that it is not respectable to be an orphan. I protest against the tendency of Mr. White's position.

And when Mr. Dickinson declares against the method of manual train- ng which I have found so fruitful in good results, educational and economical, I cannot avoid asking, What sort of boys is he thinking of? Is e thinking as fully and impartially of those who are to carry on, and irect, and develop the thousand and one mechanical occupations of the ext twenty-five years, as he is of those who are to devote themselves to terature, and art, and science, and to professional life? The manual train- g school thinks as much of the one set as the other. The children of e people, for whom public education is provided, in whose service you d I are engaged, do not all wear kid gloves or eat with silver spoons. t us so train them all that they will be strong and self-reliant, indepen- nt and free. Let their education be first broad and generous, before it omes special. Let us make it thoroughly human, by developing all ir God-given human faculties and sympathies symmetrically; in short, us put the whole boy to school.

thers claim that a manual training school is a "special" school. If is special to omit Greek from its curriculum, and to give but one d of the book study to language and literature; if it is special to but a moderate attention to commercial arithmetic, to book-keeping, ive more than the usual attention to elementary science, and at the e time an equally moderate attention to practical drawing and the ciples and processes which underlie half the occupations of our peo- then the manual training school is a "special" school. But cer- y, it is no more special than, for instance, any one of the high schools oston. That city has a high and normal school for girls, with al reference to teaching; a Latin high for boys, with special refer- to being lawyers, physicians, or clergymen; and an English high oys intending to enter mercantile life. Such schools may be right roper, and be demanded by the needs of a great city. For them oes not and ought not to shrink from spending large sums of public y.

t what equally generous provision does she make for those other n boys who outnumber these several times over, and who need and pable of receiving some preparation for the business of their lives?

These boys must either go to their work with no training beyond f the grammar schools, or they must content themselves with the inary training of a lawyer or a merchant.

I do not admit that a manual training school is a "special" school. the Latin school and the English high that are special. Take f the Boston boys between fourteen and eighteen years of age, and see how many of them need Greek and how many need manual training. Then take the graduates of a high school and of a manual training school, which have stood side by side long enough to afford a basis of comparison, and see which set of graduates has scattered most widely into occupations requiring cultivated brains.

No, I am clearly of the opinion that the high-school people have no right to call the manual a "special" school. It is not.

In conclusion, let us not fear to build our own house. Let us not fear to strike out for ourselves, when the age demands something new. Progress is essential to life, as Browning says:

> "'Tis a life-long toil till our lump be leaven.
> The better! What's come to perfection perishes."

I see nowhere, in either ancient or modern times, a people whose youth have been trained as our youth should be trained. Neither Babylon, nor Athens, nor Rome, with their pinnacles of culture resting on the barbarous foundation of human slavery; nor the blooded aristocracies of more modern times, buttressed and supported by millions of laborers, ground down in ignorance, poverty, and superstition; none of these can teach us how to educate, construct, and adorn an American citizen. We must not expect all our boys to rule, or to be ruled; to direct, or to be directed; to employ, or be employed. No narrow, selfish aim, no prejudice of caste, no false claim of high culture must mislead our pupils.

Give them a generous, symmetrical training; open wide the avenues to success, to usefulness, to happiness, to power; and this age of scientific progress and material wealth shall be also an age of high intellectual and social progress.

*DISCUSSION.**

DR. MINER, of MASSACHUSETTS. They are not altogether crazy, they
t things mixed. Gen. Walker is a member of the Massachusetts Board
Education. Dr. Dickinson is Secretary of the Board of Education.
n. Walker has not told you that manual training should go into all the
blic schools, the rural districts included; he flatly excluded them. It is
a question of manual training or no manual training. Dr. Dickinson
s not object to the cooking school; Dr. Hagar's carpenter school, in
Massachusetts Normal school is under the direction of the Board of
ication, and they do not object to this matter; Dr. Boyden, of Bridge-
er, is also under them. These are not the questions in controversy in
sachusetts, and many other States. The general school law makes
school curriculum imperative. Dr. Dickinson says, "Why should the
ral law make education in carpentering imperative any more than
e imperative the engraving on steel, on silver and gold, or painting a
r upon china and porcelain?" It is a question not of what is valuable,
ow to get at it. Gen. Walker showed us how to teach manual train-
vithout bringing confusion into the public school. Now, I am not
itting myself as to my own judgment as to what may be done. I be-
we are in a transitory condition, and we need a little patience and a
experience, all round.

n hardly speak concerning the last paper. The gentleman did not
quite clear whether he would carry manual training into the schools
all circumstances or not. He shakes his head. Now, if Dr. Dick-
were here, he would shake hands with him, I have no doubt; per-
use five minutes in doing it. However, the truth is, experiments
ing on in various quarters. Massachusetts is in the path of improve-
and it is either going down or coming out on one side of this ques-
Dr. Hagar will be able to say which. The Board of Education is
posed to judge anything before its time. The Board of Education,
Dickinson suggested, has nothing to do with the schools of Boston,
r, or with those of any other city or town. The Board of Educa-
directly connected with the work of the Normal school including
rmal Art School, which is a training school to a certain extent.
ole end of the manual arts is taught in the Normal Art School;
rely does not show distrust of manual training; it is rather along

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*Reported by a stenographer.

with it. Besides, two years ago we got leave of the Board of Education to introduce a class of practical artisans in which the principal of the school, Mr. Geo. H. Bartlett, took a very active interest. Of course the schools can teach many practical arts, such as designing wall paper, the decoration of porcelain or china: everything of that sort is open before us, and is possible to us as we come to it. So we are shaking hands with these gentlemen, and I am glad we have had this discussion of the subject.

DR. ORDWAY, of LOUISIANA. I feel that it has been good to be here to-day, for I feel much encouraged for the future in the way of manual training. Some of you think, perhaps, that we who have so much to say about it are not entirely clear. I must disclaim the idea that manual training is a craze with me. I am not a crazy carpenter or a blacksmith. My business is a chemist, and I was brought up in the laboratory, and so physics and psychology are not my specialties. There is nothing like handling the things you study about. There is nothing like seeing the action of chemicals once in a while. Now, as to the study of chemistry in the laboratory, not one-tenth of those who study, will ever use chemistry directly; but I do think that chemistry as a science is or ought to be taught as a means of mental discipline. We have had chemical laboratories for the last thirty years in our schools and colleges. Everybody should study these things, not to make chemistry a business, but for its educational value.

I hold now, in respect to manual training, having had this matter brought to me incidentally, that we have, if you may so term it, the mechanical laboratory, where everybody who takes a higher course may pass through. But that does not go so far as the higher education formed on manual training. It has been said that it ought not to be carried into the grammar school or the lower schools. I leave that aside. We are here to discuss the propriety of introducing manual training, to review the argument in its favor. I believe we and the world at large have come to understand now that the manual training and most of the institutions of education, of the 17th or 18th century, are not suitable educational appliances for the men of the 19th century. If they are, the efforts of you teachers in trying to improve your methods often have been made in vain. What is the use of elementary and primary instruction? We do not hear of Roman constitutionality, we are not quoting the Roman constitution. We are going to discuss the introduction of manual training. It is an absurdity to talk about the construction of wood work as leading to the making of carpenters, and saying we might as well teach engraving, etc. That is not the thing; we do not teach wood work. We do not establish a school to make carpenters. We teach them for the sake of making them use their hands and minds. Give them accuracy of idea. Besides intellectual training, manual training has a great moral influence. We all know how easy it is to vary from the truth a little, and to get by and by into habits of disregard for the strict truth. What we want to inculcate is accuracy in everything. The student who makes a thing like that [Indicating] must be accurate. It must be true. If he is accustomed to that sort of thing, it will follow him through life.

With regard to this subject, we are here broadly to discuss how this manual training should be introduced. I am glad we are getting such ood light on the subject. There has been a great advance made, and we hall get more light on this subject as the men and women of the country ake it up. I might be pardoned for saying something in regard to manal training in the South, where certainly it is needed more than anyhere else. I am connected with a preparatory department of a university, and I anxiously look forward to every reform. We should like to ave every student of the high school know something of manual training. here is nothing optional about it. If a boy does not want manual traing, he can go somewhere else. If he comes to us, he must practice with s hands in drawing, an hour and a half every day, and an hour and a half the shop, every other day. He must have manual training in both rms. Now this matter of drawing is a very important thing in itself. hen you remember it is a very good exercise of the hand and it trains e student to accuracy. We must have manual training, and I hope the ne will soon come when it will occupy a more conspicuous place.

Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of Yonkers, N. Y. To speak five mins on this great question, after listening to the able papers so carefully pared, is trying. I cannot hope to do more than give you five minutes rest. As I have listened to these papers, I have noticed that no one the able gentlemen has yet been able to decide whether all the boys he country shall be taught blacksmithing or carpentering, but I have noticed that a single one of them has been in doubt as to the great ortance of teaching every girl cooking and sewing. A young man h whom I was talking about the importance of giving up the practice moking replied, "What shall I do if I quit smoking? I haven't any ing to do." Think about that, ladies. Take this question of what the s shall be taught home with you, and picture it in your hearts, and at next meeting let us hear from you on this question of whether or not boys shall all be taught blacksmithing and carpentering. Suppose there were to-day a law passed that no woman in the land should do sewing, what would be the result? How would you all feel, ladies, u were forbidden to sew? How much restlessness would there be in lives! How much of a soothing and peaceful occupation would be out of them! Think of that pair of scissors that lies at home in work basket, and that little thimble you use every day of your lives,—

are they not really very dear to you? Would you be willing to give them up, and never see them again?

There are many at the present day who do not like to do sewing. They find it a task, and why? The dear mothers of the last generation worked hard; they were overworked most of them; they made even the clothes that their boys wore, and sometimes those that their husbands wore. There are men living to-day,—the wife of a distinguished professor told me a few weeks ago, that it was the pride of her early married years when her husband stood up and said, "Every stitch of clothes I have on except my boots was made by my wife." That woman didn't have much time left for higher culture; and it is the daughters of those mothers who have been resting with the idea that it is a good thing to be rid of the task of sewing. Those overworked mothers, and those overworked fathers too, of the last generation, found for their children something better than they had, something to relieve them from their heavy tasks, and so they said, "You shall not do the sewing; you shall go to the high school; you shall have an education that shall lift you above those things." That was a great swing of the pendulum, and now in this movement the pendulum swings back again and the time keeps on.

I believe in sewing. I believe that it is a restful occupation. I believe that we shall save our young men from many hours of temptation, when we shall find something to occupy them, as sewing and knitting occupy the young women. When a nation has reached that point, that its material prosperity is well taken care of, there is formed a class which has leisure, and that class already exists in this country. There are hundreds of wealthy women, who have hours in which to do nothing; and what are they doing? They are found in all of our large cities. Many of them are turning their thoughts to the cause of education in all its phases, for the uplifting of those who are less fortunate. In the city of New York, there was started a little school called the "Kitchen Garden," in which the children of the poor were taught housework, and as the work extended, there came a cry that these children were being trained for servants; and a company of wise women in New York, under the name of the Industrial Educational Association of the city of New York, took up that question, and they met it in this way: Into all the fashionable boarding schools of New York city they introduced the subject of sewing, and cooking, taught by the same teachers who taught the children of the poor; and now the question is which one is to be the mistress, and which one is to be the maid.

These women of culture and the women teachers of the United States have their hands on the lever, and I call upon you to give this subject most thoughtful attention, and prepare yourselves by your own thinking, and by your own observation of what is going on, to decide this great question.

DR. ALLISON, SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, NOVA SCOTIA. I appreciate very deeply the honor of being permitted to say a word to so august and impressive an assemblage as this. During the thirty years which have passed since I graduated at one of your American universities, I have taken a profound, I may say an increasing interest in all that concerns the progress of education in the United States. During the years)f my college course in Connecticut, as far as I recollect, common-school ducation was then in a somewhat somnolent condition. The great revoution inaugurated by Horace Mann had largely accomplished the objects for hich it had been instituted, and those who advocated it had been resting n their oars. I have been amazed, however, with the rapid development own by the people in this matter, during the last ten or fifteen years. have no doubt that the great interest which has been awakened on this bject has been largely due to this Association, under whose auspices this mense number of teachers has convened here, in this great and wonrful city of Chicago.

Now, Mr. Chairman, I know how valuable your time is, I know how opssive the heat has been on this audience during the discussion; but I h to say that this discussion seems to me to have been exceedingly tinent. I have been charged by the government which I serve, with the y of considering this subject of manual training in the public schools: ther or not it would be advisable for us to enlarge our curriculum of ies, to include this subject of manual training. Now, from that point iew, I have been listening with intense interest to the discussion this ning, and I will say that I have been highly pleased with the remarks e ladies and gentlemen who have come forward here, evidently under g convictions, and spoken to us on the subject. I think I am justin saying that no national government in the world during the last r fifteen years has taken such an interest in the study of national tion as the government of Great Britain. For a long period of time has been a disposition on the part of our most intelligent and influmen to consider and study what is going on in other naions, conl with the great question of public education. If you will look at st report of the commission appointed to consider the subject of cal education, that part of the report bearing on the investigations were made in connection with the study and devolopment of educathis country, you will see what Horace White has to say. I am ng now for the encouragement, not simply of those who are intern manual training and the increased attention given to it, but I aking rather for the encouragement of those who are more deeply ted in the ordinary branches of instruction. What do these gentley in their report in respect to this: That while they find the workthe United States have not as great advantages in the way of technical schools as the workmen of England, in which every city of ten or fifteen thousand inhabitants has its technological school, yet they say that this deficiency is more than counterbalanced to the American by the superior general education which you in America have before the sharp work of life begins. Just allow me one moment to say this much further: that Mr. Mundella, the Government Secretary of the Board of Education of Great Britain, a German by birth, but a British subject, and a man who has taken the deepest interest in education, and has done great work for the cause of public education in Great Britain in the last twenty-five years, and who is also one of the largest employers of labor in the United Kingdom or in the world, employing some five thousand workmen in his manufactories at Sheffield, before this same commission, gave his testimony that, as between apprentices and young people coming to the factory for the purpose of offering their services and seeking employment, as between such persons, having received an elementary education, having received training in grammar, or arithmetic, or any science, as between these and those who come there without any such general education, and yet perhaps with some little manual skill, that the chances were as a hundred to one in favor of the former. I do not say this by way of argument, because the position I hold on this subject is exactly that of the distinguished clergyman from Boston, Dr. Miner, who just spoke. It is only by a careful study, wise generalization, and a deduction from facts upon which we can base a judgment, that it will be wise to introduce this new element into our public schools.

Mr. Ham, of Chicago. Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: There are and always have been two theories about education. One theory was stated the other day in the abstract I read in one of the morning papers on the Socratic Method, which dates back from the time of the Greeks: that is where that system came from. The point was, in this way: that by bringing the mind of the pupil and the mind of the teacher into contact, the mind of the pupil was so vitalized, that he gained power to do things. Now the other theory of education is that of Bacon: that is, it has been stated by Bacon, I think, as well as by any member of this Association. Bacon says the true definition is, the legitimate familiarity between the mind and things.

After listening to the papers read this morning, especially those by Gen. Walker and Miss Fay—of course, Gen. Woodward is not to be mentioned, as he is a veteran pioneer in manual training—but after listening to those statements and seeing this exhibit of work, I conclude that this concrete system, the Baconian idea, is the ruling factor in this audience, because the papers were so well received. I conclude they have adopted that idea rather than the Platonic idea of education. If so, then the advocates of manual training should feel very much pleased, and it gives me

much pleasure to appear before you a moment to say so, and to note the progress made in the last three or four years, and to tell you of the gratification I feel in seeing how the theory of Bacon's education is being carried out. I also feel, with Carlyle, that to work is to worship ; and here is work all about us. We heard from Miss Fay how the work is a discipline for the mind. Work is worship. Now, ladies and gentlemen, if we teach work, we shall teach a love of work and that is, in my opinion, the highest morality that can be taught,—and so I believe in manual training. The moral influence of manual training is the greatest influence that can
e exerted upon mankind. I believe, of course, that education should go
o the formation of character: that is the great thing to do; we are not
imply to make better mechanics. I have undertaken to say that our me-
hanics are as a class the best educated men in this or any other commu-
ity. What we want to-day is the eradication of that self-consciousness
at has been a source of misery in the world, that has been a source of de-
ruction of all civilization. We never shall have a civilization that will
st, unless we cure self-consciousness; unless we eliminate from the hu-
n mind this quality which makes life a struggle between man and man
a struggle to see who will reach the highest point.

ROF. DEGARMO, of ILLINOIS. As a student of the philosophy of edu-
ion, I have often wondered why this manual training movement in Amer-
has not moved along the line of least resistance. In Germany for the
hundred years there has been manual training such as has been advo-
d so warmly and received so kindly to-day. It has been, however, a
ual training for one sex, and not for the other. Germany has no
ual training for boys, as an element of public school education. There
indeed a few private eleemosynary institutions, established for poor
vicious boys, but none in general. But the girls have primarily re-
d this manual training which has been advocated here to-day, and I
lad the American girl is so well represented. I wish, however, to
of another country across the sea. We think sometimes that Ger-
is an autocratic, a despotic government, and what Germany does
annot do ; but there are a people across the water who are the peers
is nation in democratic sentiment. We are conservative, united,
ratic, to-day ; yet in that country, the fountain of democratic
ples, this matter of manual training for girls has been for a long
aithfully and successfully prosecuted. Cooking schools are estab-
in every Normal school in England, and they are as fine as they
Germany. In the State schools, ladies are employed to go from
hool to another. They give a lecture to about sixty girls at dinner-
overing the main lesson, explaining its principles; and then they
ose pupils come to them in groups of ten or a dozen, and go through
rk.

I hope to see, in every Normal school in this land, this great department represented.

MISS HIGBEE, of TENNESSEE. I am not accustomed to the platform, and I came here to-day simply because I could not get a seat in the audience. Sitting at the feet of Gamalial, is, to me, much preferable to trying to aid him in any way except by doing what he says: you know we learn by doing, and that is the theme of to-day. It is difficult to represent Tennessee. There we have been working in this cause for twenty years, and I cannot tell you in three or four minutes all we have accomplished. The thought that has impressed me most this morning is this: I think one of our speakers referred to the fact that we go back to the old civilizations in educational matters as we do in the arts, in science, and in literature. So with our present system, I think if we look back, we will find the germ of this manual training communicated to us. I remember a thought of a German philosopher, something like this: All education consists in the answers to these three questions: What can I do? What ought I to do? and, What may I hope for? Now it seems to me that the answer to the first question, "What can I do?" is here being exemplified. We must teach the children what they can do. You perhaps all remember the old saying, a sort of paradox, "I know what I know, and I know what I do not know." Well, I think if you know what you know, that embraces half of education; and the other half is to know what you do not know. If you know what you know, if you teach the children to know what they know, then we will have accuracy, and we will have truth.

Again, if we know when to stop, if we do not assume to know what we do not know, if we know how much we know, then we have the first answer to "What can I do?" Then comes "What ought I to do?" Very plainly I ought to do only what I can do. Teach the children after they learn, then to do. The commandment is, after they learn to labor, put them to it. Then there will be no question of discord. That is what we are trying to do in the South, to teach them to labor, to be useful, not only as helpful to themselves, but as much more helpful to others, and to lead useful lives.

PRESIDENT SOLDAN, of ST. LOUIS. Ladies and Gentlemen: I am glad to see that a new force has made its appearance in education, that of manual training. I am glad, not for the reason that new results will follow, not for the reason that things may be made for the eye, but for the reason that it deepens the thought process, which is the training, the education of manhood and womanhood for life. For the reason that it attracts more attention, and enlists stronger sympathy. You have now the electric light, and you can turn out the old gaslight. It is a new force. I treat this manual training as a new force which will send light to what is now dead matter. That light begins to shine already, and I hope that when the new education is completed that we can turn out the gas of the ld education, and be guided by the new electric light of manual training.

Dr. Bellows, of Illinois. I only have this to say. God has given s bodies and minds, and whom God hath joined together let no man put sunder, is the advice of the preacher, when he stands you and your lover p on the floor and pronounces you husband and wife. Where the educa- on of one begins, the education of the other begins, and where you begin leave the one out of account it will get behind, and prove a burden the other. I am glad of this opportunity to say to you that I earnestly lieve you cannot leave one out of account without hurting the other. y text to begin with and to close with, in the education of the mind and dy, is that God has united them, never let them be put asunder in your stem of education.

President Sheldon. The platform has had its way thus far, this rning. Now, have you any questions to ask these learned ladies and se humble gentlemen?

Ir. Greenwood, of Missouri. Will the boy or girl, who spends an r or two each day in work, make more rapid progress in other studies?

resident Sheldon. What say you, Professor Woodward?

rofessor Woodward. My observation is, they make equal if not su- ior progress, particularly in mathematics.

Voice. I wish to inquire if any of this work can be done success- y, without a special teacher?

r. Ordway. I think not.

Voice. Yes, it certainly can.

rofessor Greenwood, of Missouri. Do not the girls generally from ountry know how to sew, how to make garments, and how to cook?

rs. Rickoff. No.

esident Sheldon. No, says Tennessee. No, from Kansas. What ou, ladies—do you know how to use the needle and scissors?

Chorus of Voices. Yes, yes, yes.

esident Sheldon. Let all teachers who can sew raise their hands. ands up, and it is unanimous. All can sew, and I knew it would be so.

Clark, of Boston. It is about five years ago, ladies and gentle- as the President of this Association can testify, that I undertook a te job of log rolling with him to get the subject of industrial educa- iscussed by this Association at one of its annual meetings, and he e then it was utterly impossible to carry it out.

sident Sheldon. And I told you the truth, sir.

Clark. I do not know what to say after such papers as you have here this morning. There seems to be but little that can be said in n to what you have heard, but I could not help feeling, as I listened words of the president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, I could not help thinking of the battle some years ago at Spottsylvania. There was a magnificent charge of Hancock's corps, and in that charge Gen. Walker bore a most conspicuous part, if I am not mistaken. I thought as I listened to his remarks here this morning regarding the charge upon the public education of America here, to-day, that it was only equalled by the military record which he has left behind.

Only one word more. I have referred to the fact that five years ago this question could not get a footing in this Association. I am now commissioned by Mr. William Mather, who five years ago was a member of the Board of Great Britain, and reported upon technical education in America; and who within the last two months has been supplementing his observations, and who will report before the British Association about the first of August (he sails to-morrow from New York)—I say I have been commissioned by him to report the opinion of this meeting on the subject of industrial education, in order that he may lay it before the British people. Now, I want for a moment to tyrannize over your chairman, and ask if it is the opinion of this audience that the question of industrial education is one of sufficent importance, to be regarded as the most important of all questions of public education. In other words, if this question of industrial education is the one to which attention should be prominently directed. Is it your opinion that it is? All those in favor of it, say aye.

I think it is a favorable vote. I think from what I have heard said on this important feature of public education, that the world is moving.

PRESIDENT SHELDON. I would like to ask how many persons in this audience were present at the great meeting of this Association held in Chicago, in 1863,—twenty-four years ago. Will all who were present at that meeting please rise ?

Ten persons rose.

How many at that time ever thought of introducing manual training or the use of tools into a public school. Let them rise.

No response.

They have all come since.

Now, we are in the State of Illinois, a State that has treated us grandly, and dealt with us gloriously, and we want to close this discussion (except for the final summing up of Gen. Walker) by having the President of the State University of Illinois, Dr. Peabody, say his good say.

DR. PEABODY. For thirty years I have been patiently laboring in such a way as is possible for me, with the principles of science on the one hand and the practical application on the other, that they should go forward with one pace, step by step, in education. I have endeavored in every way to promote harmony, and with that object in view I have strong sympathy for this whole subject of manual training in its broad character. I find that there has been in this discussion a sort of jumbling of terms; that if one was satisfied that there was a propriety in the general establishment of manual training, practically he must accept the theory that all boys, and perhaps all girls should be sent through the shop of a machinist or a carpenter. I do not believe that that is an honest answer, I do not believe these things necessarily go together. I believe the work shops of manual training have a pedagogic and an economic value; that the economic side of that work is that it should nable the person who had done it to do better work, to bring out better esults, to accomplish something in the way of getting his livelihood; nd that the pedagogic side is to do something towards making him a rger and nobler, more perfect and more complete man. Undoubtedly is question of manual instruction has its utility on both these sides. here cannot be anything in the way of instruction, anything in the way training or discipline, which shall not have its pedagogic value. Yet appears to me that the chief value of this manual training belongs on economic side, and I am disposed to protest right here against the sertion that is sometimes made that they do not care to discuss the eco-mic side, that will have nothing to do with this. I believe the time is idly coming, and we are being forced to it by the circumstances round ut us, when young men and young women must get in schools their tructions in trades; because there will be no other possible way in which y may get that instruction; and that boys and girls will come out of se institutions ready to earn their daily bread. I cannot see how this be got at entirely except through education.

n the other side, we have a pedagogic value. I am unable to follow of the lines so far as they have been followed in this discussion. I nable to say that there is that result in its pedagogic force which is ed for it. I have had some practical experience in this matter. I d the money by which I went to college, by just such an implement at (holding up a carpenter's hammer), working fourteen hours a day, think I have some experience in that direction. I fear that in the f that implement, and most of the implements here, there is little t pedagogic value. That there should be some instruction is beyond on, but it is slight as compared with some other methods of train-hich might be adopted. I would prefer, if I could have my way, to hese young men disciplined thoroughly, mentally, and then possi-should put them at this work. I think the best class work I have en was brought from Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in the of 1877, when the first class of that institution was put upon shop eing young men who had had the discipline of the entire course. had in my hand some of their specimens, I have known what they have done, and some of their work is shown in this city. I once went with one of these young men down into the machine shops of the Illinois Central Railroad, and there Mr. Jeffreys declared that he had but one man in his shop who could better the specimens that were presented to him; yet this work was practically the work of twelve days' instruction, of twelve hours each. These young men having been trained in that method, were then competent to put themselves to that work, and to accomplish in a short time vastly more than they could have accomplished in months of time, in the early part of their course.

PRESIDENT SHELDON. Of what significance is that wonderful work in the exposition, by the feeble minded children?

DR. PEABODY. I submit, the President of this Association has no right to encroach upon my time.

PRESIDENT SHELDON. I would like to know what it means. Is all mechanical work, work without thought? I think you, as the master of ceremonies in industrial work in Illinois, ought to answer my very simple question.

DR. PEABODY. So for as I understand, sir, that is work which has been produced under careful and elaborate training of special teachers, who have watched that work, and have brought it out as mechanical work. That is the result of brain work, under the intelligent guidance of the teacher.

PRRSIDENT SHELDON. Is it like a man who can't write his name, and gets another to sign his will?

DR. PEABODY. I should say the other man had instructed him how, probably, to make his will.

PRESIDENT SHELDON. Then you do not claim it to be intellectual work at all?

DR. PEABODY. I do not know what they claim for it: I cannot think that it has a large amount of intellectual character.

PRESIDENT SHELDON. I want you all to observe that work.

DR. PEABODY. It certainly is the most remarkable exhibit on the floor of the exposition.

There is but a single thought more I would present at this time, and that is in the nature of a suggestion. It appears to me that there is a liability and more than a liability, that our lines are drawn aside in this discussion from the very important matter, that we are inclined to attend too much to the material side of our students' work, and that in so doing we forget the more important, the higher, the nobler, the intellectual side. Or, if it be true, that the greatest thing in this world is man and the greatest thing in man is mind, it is our business in this training of mind to see that mind shall dominate and control in all our training. As the mind is trained and developed, it develops the body. It is important that we should train the mind, that we may be uplifted into that nobler and higher sphere of thinking, in which the most glorious element of our human life and of our human thoughts reside.

Professor Woodward, of Missouri. I am not very well satisfied with the way the question of Mr. Clark was received. You understand that he represents a member of the Royal Commission investigating for the British people the subject of manual training. There was introduced into parliament a resolution looking to the equipping of manual training schools and the introduction of manual training into the common schools of Great Britain; and what he wants, to-day, is the verdict of the American people as to the value of manual training as an element of public instruction.

President Sheldon. Ladies and Gentlemen: Those of you who think nanual training is of value and importance in a system of education in he United States will please manifest it by saying aye.

A unanimous response.

President Sheldon. Now, General Walker, you have a minute and a alf to say the last word in this discussion: you opened it, and you close .

General Walker. I will not use the minute and a half to impose upı an audience that has borne so long, and so patiently with me in the ıening exercises, by saying a single word beyond expressing my profound atification at the manner in which the teachers of the United States re assembled have met and treated this subject.

WHAT CAN BE DONE BY EDUCATORS TO ENLIGHTEN AND AROUSE THE PEOPLE, AND EXCITE PUBLIC SENTIMENT IN FAVOR OF EDUCATION.

HOW TO SPREAD INFORMATION CONCERNING THE TRUE PURPOSES AND METHODS OF SCHOOL EDUCATION.

HENRY SABIN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLINTON, IOWA.

The common schools belong to the people. In most cities and towns the officers who have the closest relation to the schools, who appoint teachers, furnish supplies, and care for the general welfare of the district, are chosen directly by the popular vote.

At a single election, or at most, through two successive elections, the electors, can reverse their policy, and change all the conditions of their schools. And this is often done, not in the interests of good schools, but of a false economy.

Neither through tenure of office, nor by any device whatever, can we escape the conclusion that every election is a crisis in school affairs.

This organized connection between the people and the schools is an important factor in the problem of public instruction. By taking advantage of it we can surround the schools with a rampart of public opinion, which will protect them against all attacks.

The first division of the subject is limited to school education. It not only implies that the people are ignorant concerning purposes and methods, but also that to enlighten them is a legitimate part of the teacher's professional work.

The course of events is working a change in the character of the teacher's vocation. The typical school-master of the future will be a man of broad, aggressive ideas. He will insist upon being heard whenever educational questions are debated, and of being counted whenever the vote is taken. The future of education in this country will be in his hands, to be made or marred in proportion as he is wise or foolish.

In the first place, what information have we to give the people concerning the true purposes and methods of school education? Did you ever consider the purpose and motives which induce people to send their children to school? It is not a mere mechanical act, an unconscious volition; there is some idea, some felt want, some desire for the good of his offspring, which prompts the parent to sacrifice time and money that his child may be educated.

You may ask the question in a hundred families without obtaining one clear-cut, definite answer. A vein of truth will crop out here and there
n unexpected places; each of the factors which make character will be
iven more or less weight in the different replies; but running through
hem all will be found the idea that the child's chance of getting on in
he world, the prospect of his material advancement, is supposed to be in
me way augmented by his attendance at school.

In a word, the toiling, struggling masses are hoping for something bet-
r for their children. There is with them an ambition beyond the bread-
d-butter question. The father desires that the child shall be able to
unt and add, not only that he may keep his accounts, but that he may,
necessary, be able to act with intelligence as judge at an election; that
shall be able to write, not only that he may sign his name, or write
eceipt, but that he may fill with credit the position of secretary at a
lic meeting, or recorder in his lodge. The idea of that power, of that
lity which comes from education, is unconscious in the parent's mind.
ust so far as the purpose of school education is to enable the child at
urity to demand a better remuneration for his labor, to gather about
home more of the comforts which make life endurable, to fill with
it positions of trust or emolument, just so far it commends itself to
people as something worth having. Nor are the instincts of the peo-
wrong. The child must be made a producer in the world; his powers
ody and mind must be so trained that, either through his brain labor
andicraft, he may add at least a unit to the grand total, which repre-
s the results of the entire labors of his generation.

the second place, what is a true method? Do not confound a meth-
d a device; the latter is often only the embodiment of some one's
y. At the best, it is only a scheme for lessening labor, or short-
a process; for making the rough places smooth, and the crooked
s straight, too often at the expense of habits of application, of vigor
ought, of that mental hardihood which is so desirable a part of edu-
n. A large proportion of our so-called methods, unfortunately, never
bove the level of a device.

rue method is based upon some acknowledged principle; it is broad
eneral in its application; it directs and controls energy and action
part of both teacher and pupils; it respects the child's physical,
and intellectual nature; it sets the faculties free to act without de-
ng the child's mental individuality; it induces vitality of thought, in-

creases strength, vigor, and nerve, inspires confidence, and in the end, enables the man to stand without aid, and to walk without crutches. The result of true methods is independent manhood,

> "The one immortal thing
> Beneath time's changeful sky."

In an attempt to enlighten the public concerning the purposes and methods of education, we can learn from others. Religious societies, political parties, organizations designed to effect any particular end, recognize the fact that men shape their opinions from what they read.

Guided by the same principle, we should make a systematic effort to furnish the public with reading matter upon educational topics. The public press affords one means of doing this. An educational column in the weekly paper, if rightly conducted, is to be commended. It must not, however, be allowed to degenerate into a school directory, or an educational gazette, of interest to teachers only. As a teachers' column, conducted in the the interests of teachers alone, it is a failure. As an educational column, conducted in the interests of the people's schools, open to all who wish to discuss educational matters, it becomes the means of arousing enthusiasm, of elevating in a community the prevalent ideas of school and school work, and the channel of conveying information concerning our purposes and methods.

A wider field is opened through the daily and religious press. The papers abound in sharp, unjust, ignorant criticisms, yet they are not unfriendly. Educators as a body are timid. We are too thin-skinned. We explain, we apologize, we deprecate existing evils, but propose no remedy. When our neighbor's idols are in question, we are firm iconoclasts, but we are very conservative concerning our own *penates*. We skulk behind the barricades of use and custom; we are continually on the defensive. An attack, a bold advance, a fight in the open field would be better for us. In short a disposition to meet the ablest men about us in the discussion of educational policy, in the public press, upon the broad basis of public benefit, would give the people new ideas of our purposes and methods.

There is a necessity for the enactment and enforcement of such laws as will carry the blessings of school education to the doors of the humblest, most benighted family in the land. The free use of the newspaper press is the surest means to accomplish this end.

The stream, whose waters make glad the hills and pastures of this fair land, fails to reach the waste and desert places in the borders thereof. New channels must be dug, new water courses must be opened, that the plentiful, healing waters may give life to the sterile soil. "Then shall the solitary places be glad, and the wilderness bud and blossom like the rose."

Again, State associations ought to be made more effective as a means f imparting information to the people. Representing the brain and exerience of the teaching force of the State, there is no desired change n school laws or customs which by combined efforts they cannot effect. nd yet what do they accomplish? Practically nothing. There is prob- bly no organized body, having such abundant opportunities, which can ow more meager results of its labors, than the average State teachers' sociation.

In brief, these associations do not appreciate the work which they are lled to do. Let them relegate school-room devices to the institute, or unty association, and abandon, in part, those ultra professional topics ich do not interest the people. Avoid overcrowding the programmes, t have a few short pithy papers upon live topics read and thoroughly cussed. Such papers as are judged worthy should be published, with main points of the discussion, and distributed in all parts of the State. ey would find most ready readers. But more than this; organization is key-note of success. These associations should attempt to secure m the State legislatures sufficient funds to enable them to send lec- ers approved by the State department, into every county; educational ngelists, preaching the gospel of education to the common people.

he information which these associations could thus spread among the ple, by systematic efforts, would change the whole aspect of educa- al affairs in less than a decade.

he work of spreading information, however, is not wholly in the hands e teachers. It is the custom in most cities to publish annual reports, ing the cost of schools and their general condition. To do this, nce is largely placed upon statistical tables, figures heaped upon es; "Ossa piled upon Pelion." The fewness of the allotted years er life too short to wade through them. These statistics, with the hy and profound discussions of educational theories, give such ts great value in a professional view, but the plain business man can- ppreciate them. He usually reads the president's report, because he can understand; he looks over the financial statement, the dis- ments, and the estimates for the next year, because they interest but when he reaches the bulkier portion, he closes the volume in ir. Like Watts's poor sinner, he

> . . . "Stands shivering on the brink,
> And fears to launch away."

horter and modified form of the report, compiled expressly for dis- ion among tax-payers and the parents, might easily be prepared. uld show just how the people's money is expended, and explain those points concerning which there is any dispute, or about which re liable to be mistaken. Add a few plain facts and arguments, calculated to elevate the tone of educational sentiment, and send it into every family. Print editions in different languages, so that foreigners, who know the least about our schools, may read and understand it. This seems to be a practical way of reaching a class of our population which stand most in need of such instruction. It would be putting the people's money where it would do the most good.

Above all things, let it be short. The man who was born in a hurry, lives in a hurry, and will undoubtedly die in a hurry, reads in the same way. The experiment is worth trying. The only antidote for ignorance is knowledge. The only remedy for falsehood is truth. The school demagogue, who howls on the corners of the streets, will find his occupation gone, when men have facts wherewith to refute his lies.

The printed page, however, does not furnish the only means of educating the public. The people ought to know more of the actual school and school-room. There is a mischievous tendency to centralize the interests of the school in the teacher and the pupils, to the exclusion of the people. This tendency we must in some way counteract.

Through the old-fashioned public examination the community gained a degree of information concerning our purposes and methods, which they do not obtain under our present system. There are certain things which written examinations cannot show; a certain enthusiasm which they cannot create; a certain kind and amount of information regarding the school which they cannot impart. Admitting all that is claimed for them, they still lack the democratic element of popularity. "Per cent." is a dead language, which only the initiated understand.

It is true that the public examinations, once so popular, were often superficial, deceptive in their nature, and worthless in their results; but they can be made to represent real, every-day life in the school-room, in a larger degree than our modern system of written examinations possibly can, or our more modern system of school exhibits. Public exercises of all kinds may easily be carried to excess. The necessary caution is, to remember that here as elsewhere, the touchstone of a true method is common sense.

The point is, that any public exercise is legitimate, and any information bearing upon purposes and methods of school is desirable, which tends to make the people feel that the school is an integral part of their daily life, and that they must share with us the responsibility of its success or failure.

Another means of spreading information is through the county institute. The original purpose of the institute embraced the design of making it an educating power in the county. For years it was the nucleus of an educational revival. Not alone teachers, but citizens came up to it, and went home filled with that enthusiasm which is born of new ideas.

The tendency to-day is to make it simply a training-school, a teachers' class and nothing more.

In the exercises intended more especially for the public, there is more attempt to amuse than to instruct. It is time to call a halt. Send the comic lecturer, the mountebank, whose harvest is the institute season, and the professional reader, who

> "Stuffs the head
> With all such reading as was never read,"

each to his own place. Fill up the evenings with educational talks and discussions, or with papers prepared by members of the institute. Make the institute something higher, better than a mere cramming school, in which the high-water mark of enthusiasm is reached with the day of examination for certificates. Restrain the immoderate floods of knowledge with which instructors are wont to deluge the teachers, and divest the institute of that halo of learning, dangerous because there is so little of it, which is so often cast about its proceedings.

We must restore the institute to its original purpose. We must bring back the people, the missing element, and above all things, so instruct the teachers, that by their school work, and as they go from house to house in their district, they may daily inform the people concerning the true purposes and methods of school education.

We have before us the task of readjusting our school system to meet the demand of a utilitarian age. The industrial exhibition has its mission. Not that we are to teach the use of the jack-knife, the saw, or the plane, as we now teach reading and arithmetic; but through it we may convince the people that our purposes and methods are not adverse to actual life; that thought, application, discipline of mind, will manifest itself in the more intelligent work of the hand. A still broader education is before us. The connection between mind and body; the relation of brain work to hand work, of intellect to skill, of concept to product, are yet to be given due weight in establishing a curriculum.

There is yet one other means at our disposal, viz., the school itself. By the same mental act men refer figs to the fig-tree and briars to the bramble-bush. The schools are to be judged by their fruits. Wherever the curriculum is wrought out in accordance with a thorough knowledge of the true purposes and methods of education, there the schools are heartily supported by the people. Stones, however polished, are not bread, and dry husks cannot satisfy the hungry. The life of knowledge is more than the facts whereby we nourish it, and the body of knowledge is more than the raiment of words wherewith we clothe it.

While the spirit of our purposes and methods must not degrade intellect, it must enthrone labor. The pupils must go out from our schools right minded, and ready to take up any honest calling, as better than idleness; through a brain quickened by the conception of ideas, or through a hand skilled to execute, they must open up new avenues of labor, and help solve the problem of employment for the unemployed; such results will commend our purposes and methods, as no words can. If in after life, in proportion as the theoretical side of education vanishes, the practical side becomes an increasing quantity, the information which is thus spread abroad will endure from one generation to another.

I have thus briefly noted the following means of spreading information of our purposes and methods: (a) The public press, embracing the weekly, the religious, and the daily press; (b) The work to be done through our State associations in preparing and distributing educational tracts, and in the employment of lecturers; (c) The reports of school officers, written, or compiled with a view to inducing the people of the city or district to so read them, that they may gain correct information concerning the actual conditions and wants of their schools; (d) The value of the institute as an educating medium; (e) Information of actual school life conveyed through oral examinations and public exercises; (f) Educational exhibits; and (g) The school itself.

With these means at our disposal, if the schools suffer through the people's ignorance, the blame is wholly ours.

> "The fault, dear Brutus, is in ourselves,
> Not in our stars."

HOW TO TEACH PARENTS TO DISCRIMINATE BETWEEN GOOD AND BAD TEACHING.

MRS. ELLA F. YOUNG, PRINCIPAL OF SKINNER SCHOOL, CHICAGO.

Short as is the history of the public school system in this country, it furnishes numberless illustrations of the restless activity of the pedagogic mind. It is difficult to decide which is the more ludicrous, the avidity with which a new theory or method is seized and pressed to the front, or the rapidity with which an old one is dropped and forced into the background. The thoughtful observer is sometimes perplexed to decide whether this hurrying to and fro is the result of a lack of clearness of thought regarding what education is, the outcome of a desire to attain notoriety, or the manifestation of a truly progressive spirit.

It is in the things to be taught and in the manner of presentation, that unquiet and restlessness have marked the course of the great body of teachers. In the determination to command the situation alone, there has been an undistracted calmness equal to that of the stars in the clear vault of heaven. Parents have gradually been made to understand that the school-room is not the place for them, except on public days. As a result, there is a marked tendency on the part of the people to acquire their knowledge of the character of the training given their children, in any other way than by personal observation of teachers and children at work. While we, if not alienating the parents, have at least, been permitting indifference and apathy to become wide-spread among them, rival claims in the forms of business, household duties, social demands, art and literature have been attracting the people, and gradually monopolizing their time and interest. So general is this unconcern, that days, weeks, and months go by without bringing a parent to visit the regular recitations. A child's misconduct, or a misunderstanding of the teacher's course may bring about a call at the school-room door, but rarely will it do more.

Under these circumstances, is it not a peculiar task to tell how discrimination between good and bad teaching may be taught to the people? may be taught to those who never personally observe either kind of work? No one would hesitate to say that it is impossible to teach discrimination in colors and tints to those who hear, but do see not.

Undoubtedly, the day has passed when even a respectable minority of the parents can be induced to become regular visitors at the school.

Among teachers, however, an aversion to visiting does not prevail. The desire to inspect each other's work amounts almost to a mania. The report that A has a new scheme of education, or a new device for securing excellence in a particular subject, attracts swarms of fellow-teachers to visit A's school, just as the odors of the fragrant flowers attract swarms of busy bees to sip the honey. And yet, enterprising as teachers are in this matter, there is general complaint of weariness and headache after a half-day spent in observation of another's work. In the cities and towns, superintendents walk, or race through the schools, their faithful attention to duty being most noticeable in the promptness with which they depart at the close of the time allotted for the visit. In the country, superintendents do not find time to traverse their districts very often, so averaging in the year, about as much time in their few schools, as the swift-footed city superintendents average in their many schools. School trustees and members of the boards of education spend but little time observing the instruction given by the teachers. Gentlemen who are interested in the subject of education accept positions as school directors, intending to make their influence felt in the correction of existing evils. They soon are ready with reasons why they cannot visit, and so they join that staff of school officials from which emanates the continually increasing demand upon teachers and pupils. This cursory review of the attitude of school directors, superintendents, and teachers is made in support of the statement that the day has passed when even a small minority of the public at large can be induced to become regular, or frequent visitors at the school.

Then must the inference be drawn that this subject is simply theoretical? No, the subject is a very practical one, but there are attendant upon it those difficulties and far-stretching demands that make this phase of our professional life akin to the religious life. It is comparatively easy to formulate religious belief, and to tell the multitude which are the essential and which are the non-essential articles. A very different thing is it to show by one's life, and by one's influence over others' lives, what is the real essence of the doctrine we advocate. So, in this matter of teaching discrimination to others, we must first get on a plane of high thought and then act in accordance with the results of clear thinking. We must arrive at a definite conception of the value of what we are trying to accomplish in the school-room; its value as an aid to mental training, or as an addition to the pupil's fund of information. Wearying the mind by memorizing useless facts, and dulling the brain by useless drudgery are too common features of much of the work performed by both teachers and pupils. It will not help us, it will not take the responsibility from us, to say that we would gladly abolish the dull routine, but the powers above us have established the course of study. The prescribed course may have defects, but the fact remains that the tiresome attention given to isolated items of little importance, and the endless repetition of undesirable movements, or unnecessary questions originates not in the foolishness of others, but in our own unthinking imitation of those who have gone before us. Very simple tests, and yet excellent ones in helping us to concentrate our attention on educational values are such questions as these: Do I care to know this fact or principle, or do I remember it simply because I make the children memorize it? Have I formed this habit of reading, or of writing, or of standing, or walking that I am trying to impress on these children, or should I be mortified to find myself doing what I am requiring them to do? Puerile questions are they? Had they been in the teacher's catechism for self, ever since our system of school was founded, the public faith in our work would not have waned so rapidly in the present century. If we are in earnest about wishing to lead people to weigh the work done by teachers, we must make this individual study of our aims, and this close criticism of whatever we do. How grand would be the results of such a critical analysis of our own teaching. It would urge us on to learn whether we are accomplishing the desired end and that in the best way. This would keep us abreast of the advance movements in our profession. At the same time, it would help to overcome the tendency of teachers to run after every new wind of doctrine, as well as the temptation to drill classes upon petty things that are of little use. The course thus briefly outlined is a hard one to follow at all times and under all circumstances, but it is the only one that will lead to a permanent solution of the question before us. Others may for a time seem to arouse and guide those whom we wish to influence, but they will prove mere temporary expedients, effecting a change for a short time, and then falling into the background with the numberless other failures that had not real merit for their foundation stone.

Having made certain that our aims and methods are such as will give results that will satisfactorily appeal to the experience and judgment of men and women, we should make persistent efforts to draw the parents occasionally to the school, on other than festive days, and singly, or in small numbers. Formal invitations are not necessary. Verbal messages may be sent by the children. If the young folks are interested, they will see that these invitations are accepted; for, as we all know, the American parent is in a fair state of subjection to the child.

A third point that might be made is in regard to conversations on educational topics. By these are meant not learned dissertations on psychology and pedagogy, but courteous interchanges of opinions on the objects at which we aim in this or that department of our work. But alas! what with the thin skin of our profession, and the jealous watchfulness of the parent as parent; what with our narrow field of vision bounded by the walls of the school-room, and the outsider's thoughtless thought energized by the last article on "Schools that Don't Educate," or "English as She is Taught," there is much danger attendant upon a free interchange of opinions. Courtesy and breadth would decrease the danger, and increase the mutual gain.

The three suggestions made are not to principals and heads of schools only. They are made to every earnest teacher who is interested in this subject. They do not look toward bringing good and bad teaching in contrast before the communticy. They have in view the presentation of the results of a high standard of teaching, and in a measure, the concentration of attention upon those results. Parents who have seen the influence of a high grade of instruction will need no suggestion regarding the difference, when a weak teacher or a sham assumes charge of their children. Whether they will or will not do anything about it is another question. It sometimes seems as if the overwhelming desire of the American nation to get along without friction will yet bring dire disaster upon us. Will our public school system die of dry-rot?

Public attention to methods of instructions and plans of education may be further secured by occasional lectures on educational topics. Unfortunately, most lectures of this kind are aimed at the destruction of others and the elevation of self, rather than the genuine enlightenment of the audience. A lecturer who has nothing but a battering ram for existing systems, thus throwing the educational world into a state of chaos, would do well before taking the field, to prepare something definite to suggest in place of the things to be demolished. The greatest obstacle in our path, to-day, is the would be educator, who, judging our schools by those which he taught many years ago, mounts his hobby and rides boldly to the attack. Very recently, a gentleman who has written much on the subject of education in our city, visited one of the schools and in the course of a talk on the unexpected excellencies he had observed, stated that it was the first time he had ever been inside of a Chicago public school. In spite, however, of the low estimate which must be placed on the judgment of the class of critics to which the gentleman belonged, we must admit that the ability to distinguish between good and bad teaching is not a minus quantity outside of the teaching corps. The thoughts in this paper are based on an experience of many years at the head of a large school. Although the patrons have done but little visiting, it has long been evident that they not only appreciate, but are keenly alive to the merits of the superior teachers. They distinguish between the weakness that demands respect because the teacher is supreme, and the strength that commands respect because the instruction and discipline are founded on broad scholarship and good judgment.

In conclusion, an intelligent, conscientious adherence by the teacher, to the plan of carefully studying the value of all things taught, either as matters of information, or as factors in the development of thought would so instruct the general public that petty shams, dull routines, thoughtless imitations would soon be detected and condemned; while real merit, developing methods, thoughtful originality would be valued as something possible in every one bearing the honorable title of teacher.

HOW TO AWAKEN AN INTEREST AND CREATE A DEMAND FOR PROFESSIONALLY TRAINED AND GOOD TEACHERS, AND FOR SUCH ONLY.

W. W PARSONS, PRESIDENT OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRA HAUTE, IND.

A good teacher is, of necessity, a professionally trained teacher. Not necessarily that he has taken an extended course of study and training in a professional school for teachers, but in the sense that he has mastered and in his actual work exemplifies the professional or scientific view of education. The good teacher is the scientific teacher—the teacher who is conscious of the principles and grounds on which his procedure rests, in other words, whose art has become to him a thoroughly rational one. No account is taken of the genius in the school-room, who pursues rational ends by correct methods and is yet unconscious of his process theoretically considered The number of such is too small to receive attention in the discussion.

With this definition of terms, the subject becomes, How can an interest be awakened and a demand created for teachers who are able to ground the work of the school-room on principles clearly conceived and rationally determined ?

The presupposition is that the public has an inadequate understanding of the ends, processes, and means of education. The evidence of this is the absence of a general demand for such teachers only as have an intellectual and working mastery of educational principles. A failure to demand that public school teachers shall be capable men and women, thoroughly trained and qualified for efficient work, presupposes a lack of discriminating judgment with regard to the problem of education and the means of its solution. The demand cannot lead the perception.

By what means may the public be brought to a truer conception of the nature and ends of the educating process, and thus a demand created for such teachers only as are capable of conducting intelligently the responsible work? Answer may be made as follows:—

I. Education is one element in the general complex of the world's civilization. Theories and working systems of education constitute a phase, a most important phase, of a people's general status and advancement. Indeed such theories and systems are the truest indication and the best expression of a nation's highest spiritual attainment and aspiration. These will express, not only its practical, every-day life aims, but also its deepest view of the world, since all education seeks a preparation for the institutional life in which the individual is to participate. Whatever, therefore, promotes the uplifting and general culture of a people will refine and advance its ideal as to the ultimate ends of education, qualify it for intelligent judgment as to the capability and efficiency of those conducting the process, and arouse and stimulate an interest in every phase of the work. With the progress of general enlightenment the demand for skilled work in the school-room, as in every sphere of human activity, will become, and is becoming, more positive and exacting. In the earlier stages of civilization, empirical methods prevailed in the practice of arts generally, no less than in their acquisition. The dentist, the attorney, the physician, the teacher, learn their complicated and responsible arts chiefly through experiment and imitation, and the arts are practiced with little consciousness of or reflection upon their theoretical ground. Only an unawakened and immature public judgment is content with this grade of art mastery and practice. These methods and practices give way before a stage of public intelligence which, recognizing the existence of determining principles underlying these arts, demands a procedure based on these principles. The growth and rapid multiplication during the past few decades of divers technical and professional schools in all civilized countries attests the growing belief that in most realms doing can and should be founded on reasons or principles. The modern world says more and more emphatically, year by year, the engineer, the physician, the teacher, the artist, and the artizan in every sphere, must understand the *rationale* of their processes. That the qualifications required of the teacher are becoming more varied, extensive, and more strictly professional from year to year is a subject of common observation and knowledge. It might reasonably be expected then, that, even in the absence of any special and direct effort looking to the end under consideration, the demand for teachers more liberally educated, and by thorough professional study and training, better qualified to confer systematic instruction will continue to increase.

II. But may not the growth of public sentiment be stimulated to an earlier and fuller appreciation of the value of scientific or principled work in the school-room? The results sought may be hastened somewhat by the multiplication and distribution of professional journals of education. Of these there are properly two classes, namely: (1) those which give their attention predominantly to methods and details of school management and instruction—to the *minutiæ* of the school; (2) those which address their energies to the historical and more purely theoretical aspects of the subject. The first, manifestly, are designed to give immediate help in the school-room, and will be read only by teachers, and will therefore exert little direct influence on the public mind at large. The second, discussing the principles of a problem of universal interest, will reach the more reflecting and influential of the general public. If the educational press is to assist materially in developing a general demand for trained teachers, it must be by the dissemination of sound educational doctrine, by the constant presentation in as popular form as possible of the principles on which the great art of education rests. No adverse criticism is implied on the present educational press. On the contrary, it could reasonably be maintained that no other single influence has been so potent in the educational advancement of the last quarter of a century. But we have reached the third phase—the reflective stage—in the evolution of our educational system, and the world now awaits its complete logical justification in all its parts. This the press must furnish. An increased number of publications, taking rank with the leading medical and law journals of the country in the discussion of the scientific or more strictly professional aspects of its own field, would not only lift the educational world itself, but operate powerfully in enlightening the general mind. Future effort directed to the distribution of this class of educational literature among school trustees and patrons will be repaid by the spread of more enlightened views of, and a more intelligent interest in every aspect of public school education.

III. But the chief agency in promoting this better and more general appreciation of professional work in the school-room, and in creating the demand for a higher grade of teaching and school management must be the teachers of the country themselves. The popular demand for scientific doing in every sphere of activity is growing under a gradual recognition of the difference in results between a purely experimental procedure, and one which grounds itself on rationally determined principles of science. The superiority of rational methods in the school-room will be finally tested by the results they produce. The world holds the school responsible for results. Absorbed in its own problems, it will devote little time to the study of education proper, either in its theory or in its actual work. But of its results it has the best opportunity to judge. The world asks that the boys and girls trained in the public schools shall have their minds furnished with the common rudiments of knowledge, that they shall have formed habits of obedience, industry, and attention, and that they be possessed of manly and womanly principles of conduct. To the production of these results by the wisest methods and in the fullest measure the teachers of the country must devote their energies. And the world may safely be trusted to grow into an appreciation of all that is of superior and abiding value.

The conclusion is that, while through the efforts of the press and the natural contact of the best educational thought with the world at all points, much may be done to create a demand for good teachers only, still it rests mainly with the teaching world itself to bring the public to a truer understanding of all educational problems and the proper means for solving these. Little can be done by extraneous means to arouse public sentiment in favor of education and to create a demand for good teachers. When the school shall send forth young men and young women with an accurate, working knowledge of what they have studied, even though the range of subjects be more limited than the present, to a fair degree in possession of their faculties, imbued with a correct theory of life, trained to habitual obedience to all moral perceptions and sentiments, the problem of public interest in education will have solved itself.

J. T. McCLEARY, MANKATO NORMAL SCHOOL, MINNESOTA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen :—

I have been asked to discuss the question, "What can be done by Educators to Enlighten and Arouse the People and excite Public Sentiment in Favor of Education?" The able papers to which we have listened have rendered useless the paper which I had prepared, by covering the points made therein. Not to weary you with repetition, I shall leave my paper in my pocket, and shall confine my attention to a line of thought which has presented itself to my mind since I came to the rostrum this evening, and which I think presents another phase of the question.

History and experience alike teach that people are more interested in persons than in principles: that a sentiment lived is much more efficacious, much more likely to reach and move people, than that same sentiment stated in the form of a proposition. Hence the teacher should be the personification of things admirable, should be the living example of the worth of an education. He is then in a position to "magnify his calling."

Some of the specific duties incumbent upon the teacher in this connection are:

1. *To Make Due Preparation for His Work.*

This implies not only the general preparation made before assuming the duties of the teacher's calling; but also preparation for the duties of each day. It implies such care of the body as shall secure vigor in the muscles and brightness in the spirits; such study as shall enable the teacher to do his part in contributing to the interest of each exercise; such guard of the hidden sources of action as shall make even such "unconscious teachers" as the eye and the voice contribute to the moral upbuilding of the pupils. This care will give a power to the life of the teacher which will so effect for good the lives of the children that the fragrance thereof shall sweeten the homes.

2. *To Speak Well of the Work and the Workers.*

Many teachers consciously or unconsciously disparage the work of teaching in speech and action. Their speech gives the impression that they hold some other calling in higher esteem, and that only the force of circumstances compels them to teach, and their acts show that the impression is well founded. Others seek to appear tall by making some one else shorter. These permit disparaging remarks to be made about their predecessor or successor, and some even make such remarks themselves.

3. *To Remain in the Work.*

We shall free from obedience to this injunction a certain per cent. of the ladies. It is perfectly proper for them to take up other duties and responsibilities. We thank them for the service rendered while teachers, and rejoice that in losing them from our ranks we secure allies of ability and unflinching loyalty among the patrons of the schools.

4. *To Act Like Men among Men.*

It is sometimes charged, and not without reason, that teachers are "children among men." Not only as a rest from school cares, but also as a means of power in the community, teachers should enter into society and take a part in moulding its work and opinions, devoting a reasonable amount of time thereto.

5. *To "Lay up Treasures."*

Not simply those which corrupt not, but treasures of earth. It is a teacher's bounden duty to secure such a competency that when his hand has lost its cunning he may retire from active work, able to spend the evening of his life unharassed by financial cares, and able to gratify all reasonable desires for travel, books, etc. This can be done, and it should be done.

Thus, "acting well his part" in its lowest as well as its highest phases, the teacher will do something, a good deal, to "Excite Public Sentiment in Favor of Education." Honoring the man, the people will be likely for his sake, if for nothing else, to honor his work.

And, in conclusion, it may be well enough for us to remember in those "dark days" which come to all, that in every community there are persons able to sympathize with, and who do appreciate, our best endeavors even though they may never say so to us; that we have in this struggle upward the goodwill of good people and the blessing of the Almighty.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

National Council of Education.

REPORT OF SECRETARY.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, July 7, 1887.

Opening Session.

The National Council of Education met, according to previous announcement, in the City Council Chamber, and was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M., by the President, Daniel B. Hagar. Prayer was offered by B. A. Hinsdale, of Cleveland, Ohio.

A communication from W. T. Harris, a member of the Committee on Pedagogics, on the "Function of the Public School," was read by the Secretary.

The regular report of the Committee on Pedagogics was read by the chairman of that Committee, F. Louis Soldan; subject—"The Function of the Public School." J. H. Baker was appointed to report the discussion. B. A. Hinsdale, E. E. White, George P. Brown, William E. Sheldon, Aaron Gove, J. H. Hoose, Mary E. Nicholson, F. Louis Soldan, H. S. Jones, and President Hagar took part in the discussion.

On motion of E. E. White, voted to publish in the proceedings of the present year, Mr. Harris's paper, the report read by Mr. Soldan, and the paper by Mr. Payne, which was read before the Council last year.

On motion, adjourned till to-morrow morning at 9.30.

SECOND DAY.—Friday, July 8.

Morning Session.

The Council met at 9.30, and prayer was offered by E. E. White. The minutes of the Secretary were read and approved. The report of the discussion yesterday afternoon was read by James H. Baker. The report was approved and ordered printed with the proceedings.

The Committee on "Secondary Education," by their chairman, E. W. Coy, made a report on the "Relation of High Schools to Colleges." B. A. Hinsdale was appointed to report the discussion.

The discussion was participated in by James H. Baker, John Hancock, E. E. White, J. H. Hoose, W. E. Sheldon, J. M. Greenwood. J. W. Stearns, D. N. Camp, H. S. Jones, Eli T. Tappan, Aaron Gove, W. F. King, George P. Brown, J. L. Pickard, and E. W. Coy. The paper was ordered printed in the proceedings of the Council.

On motion, adjourned to meet at 3 o'clock this afternoon.

Afternoon Session.

The Council was called to order by the President, at 3 o'clock. The report of the Committee on "Normal Education," was read by E. C. Hewett; subject—"Teachers' Institutes." H. S. Jones was appointed to report the discussion, which was engaged in by John Hancock, William E. Sheldon, W. N. Hailmann, J. M. Greenwood, C. C. Rounds, B. A. Hinsdale, E. E. White, John W. Dickinson, Eli T. Tappan, Zalmon Richards, J. W. Stearns, E. C. Hewett, and H. S. Jones. Mr. White moved to refer the paper read by Mr. Hewett to a committee of three, to make such changes as should seem desirable. The motion was lost. The paper was then ordered printed with the proceedings, with such verbal changes as the Committee saw fit to make. On motion, adjourned.

THIRD DAY.—Saturday, July 9.

Morning Session.

The Council met at 9.30, and, after prayer by J. H. Hoose, the minutes of yesterday's meetings were read and approved. The report of the discussion of the paper on "The Relation of High Schools to Colleges," was read by B. A. Hinsdale. This was followed by the report made by H. S. Jones, of the discussion of the paper read by E. C. Hewett, yesterday afternoon, on "Teachers' Institutes." These reports were ordered printed with the proceedings.

The President announced the following committees:

ON NOMINATION OF OFFICERS FOR THE ENSUING YEAR,—H. S. Tarbell, J. L. Pickard, George P. Brown, Mrs. D. L. Williams, W. N. Hailmann.

ON NOMINATION OF NEW MEMBERS,—E. E. White, Zalmon Richards, H. M. James, E. C. Hewett, C. C. Rounds.

ON RESOLUTIONS,—Aaron Gove, John Hancock, J. M. Greenwood.

The Committee on "Hygiene in Education" made a report, through their chairman, W. N. Hailmann, on the "Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health." H. S. Tarbell was appointed to report the discussion. The following members took part in the discussion:—J. H. Hoose, John Hancock, J. M. Greenwood, William A. Mowry, C. C. Rounds, W. F. King, Robert Allyn, J. Baldwin, J. W. Stearns, J. W. Dickinson, J. H. Baker, George P. Brown, B. A. Hinsdale, S. H. Peabody, F. W. Parker, Aaron Gove, Mary E. Nicholson. On motion, the paper was ordered printed in the proceedings. On motion of J. H. Hoose, the subject of the paper was referred to the Committee on "Hygiene in Education," with instructions to investigate and report at a subsequent meeting.

The Council accepted with thanks an invitation to visit the rooms of the Chicago Historical Society, and adjourned until 9.30 o'clock Monday morning.

FOURTH DAY.—Monday, July 11.

Morning Session.

The Council was called to order by the President, at 9.30 o'clock. Prayer was offered by I. W. Andrews. The minutes of the meeting Saturday morning were read and approved.

The report of the treasurer of last year was read, and, on motion, referred to an auditing committee consisting of R. W. Stevenson, William A. Mowry, and J. H. Baker.

The report of the discussion of the paper on "Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health," was read by H. S. Tarbell. On motion, the report was approved, and the thanks of the Committee tendered Mr. Tarbell for his excellent report. Aaron Gove moved that the Council employ a stenographer to take down a report of the discussions. Motion lost.

The report of the Committee on "State School Systems," was read by E. E. Higbee; subject—"Teachers' Tenure of Office." J. M. Greenwood was appointed to report the discussion, which was participated in by D. H. Kiehle, John Hancock, J. W. Dickinson, Z. Richards, H. S. Jones, William W. Folwell, J. Baldwin, H. S. Tarbell, R. W. Stevenson, B. A. Hinsdale, Robert Allyn, Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Andrew J. Rickoff, Eli T. Tappan, C. C. Rounds, John Eaton, E. E. Higbee. The report was ordered printed. On motion, adjourned until 3 o'clock.

Afternoon Session.

The President called the Council to order at 3 o'clock. The report of the discussion this morning was read by J. M. Greenwood. The report was approved and ordered printed with the proceedings.

J. H. Baker moved "that the following topic be referred to the Committee on Secondary Education, in conjunction with the Committee on Higher Education, for thorough investigation and subsequent report in detail:"

"Rational selection and order of high-school studies with reference to uniformity in high-school work, and consequent uniformity in requirements for admission to college." The motion prevailed.

In the absence of T. B. Stockwell, who was expected to make a report from the Committee on "Educational Literature," J. M. Greenwood presented a paper on "What Teachers read." S. H. Peabody was appointed to report the discussion. William E. Sheldon, E. W. Coy, B. A. Hinsdale, John Eaton, and F. W. Parker took part in the discussion.

On motion of E. E. White, a committee, consisting of William E. Sheldon and B. A. Hinsdale, was appointed, to call upon Mr. Poole, librarian of the public library of Chicago, and invite him to address the Council on the use of the public library by the public schools. Mr. Poole appeared, and gave an interesting address on the use of the public library by teachers and pupils in the public schools.

The discussion of the paper was then continued by J. M. Greenwood, John Hancock, George P. Brown, E. E. White, and William W. Folwell. On motion, the paper read by Mr. Greenwood was referred to the Committee on "Educational Literature," with power to investigate and report at some subsequent time.

An invitation from Messrs. McClurg and Company was tendered the members of the Council, to visit their book-store, during their stay in the city. Accepted with thanks.

J. L. Pickard offered the following resolution:—

Resolved, that every report read before the Council shall be presented in printed form to each member of the Council, at least in outline, at the time of reading, the expense to be met by the committee making the report.

On motion, this resolution was referred to a committee of three to report to-morrow.

Adjourned, to meet to-morrow morning at 9.30.

FIFTH DAY.—TUESDAY, JULY 12.

Morning Session.

The President called the Council to order at 9.30.

Prayer was offered by Richard Edwards. The minutes of yesterday's sessions were read and approved.

The auditing committee reported as follows:—

Your committee, appointed to audit the books and accounts of the Treasurer of the Council, beg leave to report that they have examined the books, accounts, and vouchers of the Treasurer, and find them to be correct. The disbursements have been made in accordance with the custom of former Treasurers of this body.

R. W. STEVENSON,
WM. A. MOWRY, } *Committee.*
J. H. BAKER,

The committee, to whom the resolution offered yesterday by J. L. Pickard was referred, made a report recommending the following as a substitute:—

Resolved, That hereafter committees be requested to present to each member of the Council an outline of the report to be read, to the end that all members may be able better to direct their discussion.

Adopted.

The Committee on "Educational Statistics" reported through their chairman, John Eaton, on "Points for Constant Consideration in the Statistics of Education." Eli T. Tappan was appointed to report the discussion. The discussion was engaged in by E. E. White, J. L. Pickard, Aaron Gove, E. E. Higbee, J. H. Hoose, John Hancock, J. M. Greenwood, and T. W. Bicknell. It was ordered that the report be published in the proceedings of the Council. On motion of Mr. Bicknell, it was voted that the subject discussed in the paper this morning be referred to the Committee on "Educational Statistics," with power to investigate and report, and to take steps towards securing the incorporation of important educational statistics in the next census.

The committee on resolutions reported that they saw no occasion for submitting any formal resolutions. Report adopted.

It was moved that the Council go into Executive Session for the transaction of business. Carried.

Executive Session.

The roll of members was called and twenty-eight were found to be present. The committee on nomination of new members made the following report:—

To the Council of Education:—

GENTLEMEN,—Your Committee, appointed to nominate persons to fill vacancies in the membership of the Council, beg leave to submit the following report:—

The term of membership of the following members expires by limitation with the present session of the Council, viz.:

1. Thomas W. Bicknell, Frank A. Fitzpatrick, W. N. Barringer, E. E. Higbee, and J. M. Greenwood,—these vacancies to be filled by the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association.

2. Wm. A. Mowry, S. H. Peabody, E. J. James, D. H. Kiehle, and Mary E. Nicholson,—these vacancies to be filled by the Council.

3. The active membership of Larkin Dunton, of Massachusetts, and Andrew J. Rickoff, of New York, has been terminated by absence from the annual meetings of 1885 and 1886, and their names, by Article II, Section 5, of the constitution, are placed in the list of honorary members.

As your committee construes this section of the constitution, it requires absence from the two preceding annual meetings to forfeit membership, and it is recommended that this construction be approved by the Council.

Your committee nominates the following persons to fill the vacancies above specified, which are filled by the Council, to wit:—

William A. Mowry, of Massachusetts, S. H. Peabody, of Illinois, Mary E. Nicholson, of Indiana, and D. H. Kiehle, of Minnesota, to be their own successors for the term of six years ending in 1893; N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania, to succeed E. J. James for the term of six years expiring in 1893; Andrew J. Rickoff, of New York, to succeed himself for the unexpired term ending in 1890; George Howland of Illinois, to succeed Larkin Dunton for the unexpired term ending in 1890.

Respectfully submitted,

E. E. WHITE,
H. M. JAMES,
C. C. ROUNDS,
Z. RICHARDS,
Committee.

On motion, the committee's report was adopted and its recommendations concurred in.

The committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year made the following report:—

For President—J. L. Pickard, of Iowa.

For Vice-President—C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire.

For Secretary and Treasurer—E. W. Coy, of Ohio.

For Members of the Executive Committee—Mary E. Nicholson, of Indiana; James Baldwin, of Texas; S. H. Peabody, of Illinois; J. H. Hoose, of New York.

H. S. TARBELL,
MRS. D. L. WILLIAMS,
W. N. HAILMANN,
GEO. P. BROWN,
Committee.

The report was adopted.

The President called the attention of the Council to the fact that he still had on hand a number of copies of the proceedings of the Council, and asked for instruction as to the best use to be made of them. S. H. Peabody moved that the Council acquire possession of all duplicate copies of back volumes of its reports, and that the Executive Committee of the Council have authority to make such disposition of these documents as in its judgment may seem most desirable. This motion was carried.

On motion of E. E. White, it was voted that the outgoing President and the Secretary be made a committee to publish 750 copies of the proceedings of the present session. The bill of F. Louis Soldan for printing the abstract of his report was referred to the committee of which he is a member. Eli T. Tappan read his report of the discussion upon Mr. Eaton's paper, which was approved and ordered printed.

The President reported that there had been in attendance at the different meetings of this session of the Council, 44 active members, and 4 honorary members.

On motion of E. E. White, the thanks of the Council were tendered the retiring officers for the satisfactory manner in which they had discharged their respective duties. The newly-elected President, J. L. Pickard, was conducted to the chair, and appropriate remarks were made by the retiring President and also by the incoming President, after which the Council adjourned to meet at the call of the President.

E. W. COY,
Secretary.

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE.

PRESENCE IS INDICATED BY A (p).

NAMES.	Thursday, P. M.	Friday, A. M.	Friday, P. M.	Saturday, A. M.	Monday, A. M.	Monday, P. M.	Tuesday, A. M.	NAMES.	Thursday, P. M.	Friday, A. M.	Friday, P. M.	Saturday, A. M.	Monday, A. M.	Monday, P. M.	Tuesday, A. M.
Thomas W. Bicknell,				p		p	p	Zalmon Richards,			p	p	p	p	p
Frank A. Fitzpatrick,					p		p	James H. Baker,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p
W. N. Barringer,								Aaron Gove,	p	p	p	p	p		p
E. E. Higbee,				p	p	p	p	William E. Sheldon,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p
J. M. Greenwood,		p	p	p	p	p	p	James H. Hoose,	p	p	p	p		p	p
William A. Mowry,				p	p		p	Miss M. S. Cooper,				p	p	p	p
S. H. Peabody,				p	p	p	p	A. L. Chapin,							
E. J. James,								R. W. Stevenson,				p	p		p
D. H. Kiehle,					p		p	John Eaton,				p	p	p	p
Mary E. Nicholson,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	Sarah E. Doyle,							
C. C. Rounds,			p	p	p	p	p	John M. Ordway,							p
H. S. Jones,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	L. S. Thompson.					p	p	p
T. B. Stockwell,								George P. Brown,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p
G. Stanley Hall,								John W. Dickinson,			p	p	p		p
H. M. James,	p	p	p		p	p	p	Merrick Lyon,							
Mrs. D. L. Williams,			p	p	p	p	p	Thomas Hunter,							
W. F. King,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	W. N. Hailmann,		p	p	p	p	p	p
E. C. Hewett,	p		p					John Hancock,		p	p	p	p	p	p
A. J. Rickoff,		p	p	p	p		p	F. Louis Soldan,	p						
Albert G. Boyden,								N. A. Calkins,							p
Larkin Dunton,								J. Baldwin.			p	p	p		p
John S. Irwin,				p	p	p	p	James H. Canfield,					p	p	
D. B. Hagar,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	J. B. Peaslee,							
H. S. Tarbell,		p	p	p	p		p	W. H. Payne,							
E. W. Coy,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	E. E. White,	p	p	p	p	p	p	p
I. W. Andrews,					p		p	B. A. Hinsdale,	p	p	p	p	p	p	
J. W. Stearns,		p	p	p	p		p	William J. Corthell,							
William T. Harris,															
James H. Smart,								HONORARY MEMBERS.							
D. N. Camp,		p	p	p	p	p	p	Eli T. Tappan,		p	p	p	p	p	p
George T. Fairchild,								F. W. Parker,			p	p		p	
Robert Allyn,	p	p	p	p	p	p		William W Folwell,					p	p	p
J. L. Pickard,		p	p	p	p	p	p	S. R. Thompson,							p

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

[This paper was prepared by W. H. Payne, and was read before the Council at Topeka, Kansas, July, 1886.

I. *Definition.*—By public school is meant that civil institution whose purpose is to give that instruction and training not supplied by other agencies, but without which good citizenship is impossible.

II. Till within a comparatively modern period the church was the patron of the school; but with the progress of democratic government the State has become a public educator, and the maintenance and direction of schools has become a function of government.

III. The right of the State to maintain its corporate life, its right to attain prosperity, and its right to hold an honorable place in the family of nations, are the basis of its right to determine the education of its future citizens.

1. For attaining the ends the State has in view, the citizenship must be homogeneous with respect to patriotism, obedience to rightful authority, and the conditions essential to the highest development of the individual. In a certain sense, its citizens must come from a common mould, and this mould is the public school.

2. This right of the State to determine the quality of its citizenship is so imperative and absolute that it may not only enjoin a certain kind and degree of education upon all its citizens, but it may forbid modes of education that antagonize the ends it has in view.

3. In order that education may be universal, it must be made obligatory; and in order that this obligation may be just, the education that is made compulsory must be made gratuitous.

4. As the primal right of the State is that of self-preservation, the education that it may enjoin upon all, is that without which good citizenship is impossible.

5. The essential elements of good citizenship are as follows: Intellectual penetration and breadth sufficient to distinguish between right and wrong, the just and the unjust, truth and error; the knowledge needed for individual guidance as a man, a citizen, a parent, and a bread-winner; obedience to civil and moral law; physical soundness,

patriotism, industry, economy. All these qualities are implicated in instruction and discipline.

6. It is not to be presumed that the school is to be held responsible for all that is essential to good citizenship. The co-operating influences of public opinion, the family, the church, the press, the court, etc., are assumed, and the State puts upon the school the duty of supplementing or complementing the work of these agencies. As intelligence, discipline, and knowledge are the foundation and condition of all the civil virtues, the distinctive function of the public school lies in these three lines.

IV. In this country two circumstances emphasize the need of conserving the public school as an "*officina civium*"—a studio or workshop of citizens. These circumstances are the fact that with us every citizen is a possible ruler, and the further fact that through foreign emigration the material of our citizenship is very heterogeneous. The public school is thus charged with a double burden,—it must bring a homogeneous citizenship out of heterogeneous material, and must educate the citizen both to obey and to command.

1. Probity, accuracy, and industry, are school virtues,—the almost necessary results of its organization, instruction, and discipline; and when the pupil becomes a citizen, these become cardinal virtues.

2. The minimum of instruction that will answer the needs of the State, and that should be obligatory, may be stated as follows: Skill in reading sufficient to interpret ordinary written composition; writing that is facile and legible; the ability to speak and write the vernacular with facility and accuracy; some knowledge of American literature; arithmetic sufficient for ordinary computations; a comprehensive knowledge of general geography, and a more minute knowledge of home geography; a good knowledge of American history and of our governmental machinery, and a comprehensive knowledge of general history; the elements of chemistry and physics, and those parts of physiology that discover the art of healthy living; the principles of morality, of economy, and of republican government.

THE FUNCTION OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL.

[Communication from W. T. Harris.]

Professor W. H. Payne's paper on "The Function of the American School," I find to be very thoughtful and suggestive, even in those parts to which I cannot yield full assent. I agree fully with the spirit of the report and would offer criticism or suggestion only on the following points:

1. In his first paragraph he defines the public school as an institution whose purpose is to give that instruction and training not supplied by other agencies, but without which good citizenship is impossible. This is a negative definition and is not complete unless those "other agencies" are likewise defined and the compass of their education investigated. To define X as non-A does not convey any positive meaning until A is defined. Later on in the report (third paragraph, 5th section) the essential elements of good citizenship are named, but it is nowhere stated what items are provided for by the family, or the church, or by the industrial education of one's vocation, or by the State. Patriotism, for example, is imbibed by the youth of all nations from family education and from the influence of the State itself. Public opinion is all powerful to create this virtue. Indeed, patriotism is far more surely to be cultivated than either justice or philanthropy. Industry, too, is taught by the family and by the civil community, and economy, if learned, must be taught in the family. Physical soundness, too, is mentioned as an essential to good citizenship; but the schools do not do much under this head, nor ought they to be expected to; for the family reserves to itself the right to supervise bodily training and medical treatment.

There are many items in which the school must be on its guard, lest it be an *aggressor*, or even a *transgressor*. The school has to regard hygiene and physical culture, in order that it may not, by thoughtless regulations and ill-constructed buildings, positively injure the pupil's health. It must see to ventilation and heating and intermissions and the length of recitations and amount of study, lest it sow the seeds of disease. But if the Public school can become innocuous in this matter, it will do quite enough, in fact far more than it ever has done. Of course the case is different in boarding schools. A few comprehensive lessons in hygiene repeated once or twice each year are desirable, perhaps, in the course of study of every school.

The school has to take care that it does not undermine the rightful instruction of the family, the civil community, the state, or the church, and hence it must have a regard to their education, although it does not feel bound to undertake it.

2. I find it very important to determine in all these questions of definition whether we are to define what *is* or what *ought to be* Do we wish to state the function of the public school as it is, or do we wish to describe its ideal function?

3. The public school as it is, and the public school as it reveals its goal by its present trend and tendency, lays great stress on discipline as the means of training the will power of the pupil, making him obedient to authority, self-controlled, polite, and industrious. On the side of the intellect, it lays stress on training the pupil in those branches of study which deal with language and science, furnishing means of communication of ideas and a knowledge of the world.

The ability to read and write, to calculate arithmetically, added to some knowledge of geography, history, and grammar passes for a common-school education. The public system of education, however, does not stop at elementary education, but extends to high-schools and universities.

4. As to the question whether the State ought to provide education in elementary schools only, or even to provide school education at all, —this seems to be the question before the mind of Prof. Payne—we may affirm, with his report, that "the right of the State to maintain its corporate life, its right to attain prosperity and its right to hold an honorable place in the family of nations is the basis of its right to determine the education of its future citizenship." This gives the State the right to do anything and everything which it adjudges to be means for those essential ends, but it does not follow that any State will feel itself bound to act because it has the right to do it. Our own nation has been founded on a compromise between many different colonies, each of which had been engaged in a struggle to obtain freedom to exercise some special religious or political tenet. A compromise necessarily limits the sphere of action. Our government is careful to avoid legislation in regard to religious education. While

there will be a very general agreement among intelligent people that religious education is more important than all others, yet the written constitutions of our States do not permit religious education to become a matter of positive prescription by the State. Hence the nation, as a whole, and the States individually will not undertake anything in this most essential species of education.

It is evident enough that the spirit of this compromise is continually penetrating the public education more and more, producing a completely secular education. It may be well worth discussion in the Council, whether this tendency is an ultimate one, or whether it is only reactionary.

5. It is evident that education must not be limited to what can be given in the public schools of a nation that is founded on a compromise in religion. There must be other education besides Public Education. In this country, therefore, it is presupposed that people can and will undertake to provide religious instruction voluntarily.

6. Moreover, in a country where there is freedom to choose one's occupation and freedom to settle wherever one pleases, it cannot be expected that there will be public education in arts and trades. And yet such education must be looked after in the family and in civil society. But general intelligence and special knowledge in regard to the duties incumbent on citizens must be taught in the public schools.

7. If I were to attempt a definition of the function of the public school, I should lay special stress on its fitting the pupil to educate himself by competent use of books and his own powers of thought.

Respectfully yours,

W. T. HARRIS.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PEDAGOGICS.

THE FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

[Presented by F. Louis Soldan.]

DEFINITION.

The public school is an institution maintained or supported by the State, or, in other words, by the people in their corporate capacity, for developing in the young a more perfect manhood or womanhood, in accordance with the genius of national institutions. The means for such development are: 1. Instruction in the means of communication in civilized life and in the data of common knowledge; 2. Training through guidance and discipline which are incidental to such instruction; and 3. Instruction in and training through the sciences, the literature and the art which are characteristic of modern civilization.

THE RIGHT OF THE STATE TO MAINTAIN SCHOOLS.

People have organized themselves into States for the purpose of securing permanently to all individuals the rights of life, property, justice, and the pursuit of happiness. In other words, the State must make and enforce laws, especially to repress crime, and to protect the rights of the individual from encroachment.

The mission of the State is to make its institutions permanent, which implies the duty of self-preservation.

CONDITIONS OF THE STATE.

The perpetuity of the State depends, among other conditions, on the intelligence, virtue, good will, and vigor of its citizens, and on the economic resources of the land. The promotion of these conditions is for the State a means of self-preservation.

REQUIREMENTS OF GOVERNMENT.

To govern the State requires the harmonious co-operation of the masses of the people, whether it be simply in the form of obedience to law and authority, or in the higher form of intelligent law-making activity.

The conditions for the preservation of the State and of the practical efficiency of government are:

1. Development of the economic resources of the country.
2. A knowledge of the means of civilized communication possessed by the masses of the people.
3. Virtue, vigor, good-will, and intelligence of its citizens.

LIMITING PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT.

Education remains the duty of the State even where the narrowest possible limit is assigned to the function of government. These limiting principles may be thus stated:

I. *The Principle of Least Amount of Government.*

The tendency of the people of a free State is to limit the function of government to those necessities which would not be adequately cared for through the individual activity or which are too important for the existence of the State to be left to the contingency of private enterprise. In other words, in a free State, the people collectively assume such duties and rights only as cannot safely be left to the people individually.

II. *The Principle of Least Delegated Power.*

The tendency prevailing in the distribution or delegation of the power which the people in their corporate capacity assume, is, to leave with the lower or local organization (the township, city, etc.), every right not necessarily implied in the higher and more distant organization, such as the State, or central government. The term "State" as employed in the following part of the paper is used to signify the people in any of its corporate organizations.

The Limitations of the Function of Government do not exclude the duty of Public Education, because,

1. In order to make it possible to leave the individual the centre of the highest political power, his intelligence and character should be developed through education. Decentralization of power becomes possible through dissemination of intelligence and virtue only.

2. Education is not provided for adequately through individual efforts, and since it is a public necessity, the State is compelled to take care of it. Of the conditions for the perresvation of the State which have been mentioned above, some may be left to individual efforts, and some need the direct activity of the State, as will appear from the following exposition :—

THE STATE AND THE INDUSTRIES.

The development of the economic resources of a country proceeds incessantly through the agency of powerful individual interests, such as individual self-preservation, the desire of gain, the wish for wealth, for social distinction; the State, therefore, leaves the development of its economic resources largely to the people in their individual capacity. It favors and promotes economic activity, for instance, through postal institutions, railroad grants, subsidies, tariff, etc., but does not maintain economic enterprises.

FAMILY AND CHURCH AS EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

The educational conditions for the existence of the State are partly cared for by the education through family life, through the church and through civil society, and also through private schools supported by the church or the family.

Family education. Family education proceeds through educational guidance, through discipline, and, incidentally, through formal instruction.

The absorbing interest of the parents is, on one side, the obtaining of the means of subsistence, and, on the other, the carrying on of the tasks of the household. These duties require the greater portion of the parents' attention and effort and leave no time for the formal teaching which the child requires. The task of instruction is therefore delegated to the school. Formal instruction in the family is incidental, while the formation of habits and discipline constitute its essential task.

Guidance. The earliest education of the child forms his life through example and environment. He learns neither through direction nor reflection. He is guided by what he sees others do and by the daily experiences of his life. He assimilates the family example. Through guidance he forms habits of cleanliness; he is guided to adopt correct hygienic customs; he forms habits of order, obedience, and polite conduct. The customs of his environment form a mould which guides the growth of the plastic nature of the child.

Discipline. Through family discipline the child forms his first ideas concerning right and wrong. He learns self-control. He becomes acquainted with rules and laws which are stronger than his impulses and more imperative. Truthfulness and honesty are insisted upon.

Guidance seeks to lead to right action through example and habit;

discipline, through reflection and principle. Guidance is of special importance in early training; discipline begins when the child is amenable to reason. Discipline is a most important element in school education.

The educational tasks which family education should have relatively finished before the child is sent to school is, that the child should have formed habits of cleanliness and modesty; he should have learned to respect the property of another; he should possess ordinary self-control, and have learned to be obedient to authority. He should be able to understand and to use the vernacular of his home within the circumscribed limit of the vocabulary of every-day family life. A certain amount of physical development is pre-supposed.

Church Education. The education of the church proceeds through instruction which appeals to intelligence and the sentiments. It explains the religious view on the greatest questions of life. It instils reverence. It teaches the spiritual equality of man. It shows the moral law in the light of an absolute demand. The education of the church as such is religious and moral, and does not charge itself with the dissemination of secular knowledge, but rather pre-supposes it, since it relies on the understanding of higher forms of language, on the ability to read, etc.

The family educates through influencing behaviour; the church, through worship; the school, through intelligent work. Family and civil society teach through life and experience; the school supplements the limited experience of the child through the direct experience of others.

Schools. Schools have been established because a complement to the education by family and church seemed needed, on account of the growing complexity of civilized life. Their existence proves the need. By their establishment, the family and the church have conceded the limited nature of the training imparted by them. Schools complement family and church education. Civil life supplements school-training.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Reasons for their Existence.

The people in their corporate capacity have undertaken the establishment and maintenance of public schools for the following reasons:

1. Private schools from their nature must be limited in number, while education should be universal.

2. The education of the young is indispensable to the State, and cannot be left to the contingency of the pecuniary and social circumstances of the family. Education is a need of the poor as well as of the rich, and a need of the State should not be allowed to depend on charity.

3. The matter and form of instruction imparted in the schools of a nation cannot be left to the contingency of private selection; they should be subservient to the objects of the State and, therefore, influenced by the State. The State could not tolerate, for instance, that doctrines subversive of its institutions should be systematically inculcated in the minds of the young.

While the State may favor private schools, it cannot look to them to meet the general want of education.

4. Since the efficient government of the State requires the harmonious co-operation of the masses, it is a condition for the welfare of the State to provide schools in which the children of the people grow up together without class or sect distinction, so that a more homogeneous population may make the action of the government harmonious and energetic.

The Aim of the Public School.

The task of the public school is to co-operate with the family and the church, and to prepare for life in civil society. But the first two among these agencies are variable factors in the individual case, since family education may have neglected one child, and church education may be lacking in another. The scope of public school education is necessarily enlarged by this circumstance; it must not only complement but supplement family and church education. The aim of public school training becomes thereby the development of relatively perfect manhood and womanhood.

Since the power of the school is but a delegated one, and its prescribed function is instruction, the aim of public schools may be said to be the development of relatively perfect manhood and womanhood through instruction and through the guidance and discipline incidental thereto.

Classification of the Public School.

In so far as the public school has for its function to impart that education which is indispensable for the perpetuity of the body politic, it is the common school.

The public school when organized as high school or college imparts education which, while not indispensable to each intelligent citizen, should, for the general good, be possessed by a considerable number of individuals. Such higher public education is designed to train that directive ability which is so important an element in the development of the material and intellectual resources of the State and in the administration and perfection of its laws.

THE COMMON SCHOOL.

The Duty of the State.

The State has the duty of maintaining common schools, because they
indispensable for its continued existence.

Function of the Common School.

The function of the common school is, to develop more perfect man-
d and womanhood by educating children through instruction in that
lar knowledge which in a civilized community is indispensable to
individual, and through the guidance and discipline incidental to
instruction.

he Subjects of Instruction in the Common School.

e subjects of instruction in the common school are: The acquisi-
f the means of civilized communication, language, reading, writ-
arithmetic, which supplies the measure for the exchange of the
on necessaries of life and the more general economic values; a
l knowledge of the country, its resources and position in the
or popular geography; a knowledge of the institutions of the
y, of their growth, and of the duties of citizenship.

ddition to these studies which refer to the duties of citizenship
articularly, there are others which may be incorporated into the
lum of the public school, since its aim is to train and develop
d and womanhood and to supplement family and church in-
n. The child should learn the laws of health, and have a gen-
wledge of the most common objects and laws of nature. Since
d be prepared for the duties of civil life, the local conditions
tem of schools may influence the course of study. Thus in
manufacturing centres more attention might be paid to draw-
in rural schools.

g, originally introduced to aid church education, remains an
instruction in most of the public schools, on account of the
influence it has on the sentiments and the will, and on ac-
he assistance which it gives in the management of the school-

The common school should also attend to physical training. 1. By observing proper hygienic conditions. 2. By gymnastic exercises.

Instruction is a means to an end. The aim is the development of manhood and womanhood in accordance with the genius of national institutions. Instruction is imparted because it educates.

Instruction educates because it gives exercise and thereby training to the faculties. The circle of subjects should, therefore, be sufficiently wide and various to appeal to the faculties in general.

Instruction educates by widening the views of life and supplementing the experience of the child, thus extending the circle of his interests. Through the deeper insight into the relations of life he must learn to act on principle and intelligently.

The moral training of the public school is, in a general way, to place the pupil in a position similar to those in which he finds himself in life; to accustom him to live with his equals, to make him reflect on his actions, to lead him to act according to fixed principles, intelligently.

To state the moral influences of the public school more in detail: The moral agencies incidental to instruction are guidance and discipline. There is, in the first place, guidance in the moral school-room habits of silence, self-control, concentration of effort, of punctuality and regularity, of industry. There is also the preparation for civil life which the child receives by being thrown into the society of his equals, by which he learns to respect their rights and to maintain his own; the habitual submission to law and authority; experience of the evil consequences of wrong-doing; reverence for authority; reflection on moral rules and action controlled by moral intelligence as opposed to impulse.

HIGHER PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Their Right of Existence.

1. The right of the State to maintain high-schools and colleges is implied by the fact that it has been the practice of all civilized governments to maintain and support higher institutions of learning.

2. The continuation of a State depends on its position among the nations of the world. National strength is dependent, among other conditions, on the degree of civilization possessed by the people. It is, therefore, the universal practice among enlightened governments to protect and promote literature, the sciences, and art.

3. It is a recognized right exercised by all civilized governments to
rther and encourage the development of the economic resources of
eir country. (a) In every kind of economic activity, directive power
needed, which pre-supposes a higher degree of culture and training.
) The human mind itself is a source of national wealth, and it is
refore for the general good to give to talent and genius the oppor-
ities of development and training, independent of the pecuniary
ition of the family into which they happen to have been born.
heir Maintenance by the State.
igher schools are useful for the general good, and therefore the
le in their corporate capacity may maintain them. Their basis is
usefulness for the State, and expediency; the basis of the com-
school is its necessity. The State may maintain the former, but
maintain the latter.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

F. LOUIS SOLDAN,
JAMES H. HOOSE.

ANALYSIS.

THE FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

ion : An institution maintained by the people for developing more per-
hood. Means of development : (1) Instruction in elementary knowledge;
ing through the guidance and discipline incidental to such instruction;
uction in the sciences, literature, and art of modern civilization.

TE'S RIGHT TO MAINTAIN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.
n of the State : Protection of the individual's rights.
ns of the existence of the State : The manhood of its citizens ; its econom-
resources.
ent : Its condition ; Co-operation of the masses.
ns for the preservation of State and Government :
velopment of economic resources.
neral knowledge of the means of civilized intercourse.
tue, vigor, and intelligence of the citizen.
nciples of Government :
st amount of government.
entralization.
of the Economic Resources of the State :
es with individual interests and, therefore, is left to them.

OF EDUCATION.
ucation : Guidance and discipline.
ucation : Religious and moral instruction.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

Reasons for its Maintenance.

- *a.* A universal need should be cared for by a universal institution.
- *b.* A State necessity should not be left to the contingency of private effort.
- *c.* The selection of the subjects of instruction important to the State.
- *d.* The homogeneity of population and public sentiment to be achieved.

The Aim of the Public School:

Perfect manhood through instruction, guidance, discipline.

Classification of the Public School:

- *a.* The Common Schools.
- *b.* Higher Schools.

a. THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

Their maintenance a state duty.

Function of the Common School:

Development of manhood through instruction in the common branches and through guidance and discipline.

Studies of the Common School:

- *a.* Language, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history.
- *b.* Hygiene and natural science, drawing, singing, etc.

Education through Instruction:

- *a.* By exercise of faculties.
- *b.* By expansion of interests.

Moral influences of school life.

Guidance and discipline.

b. HIGHER PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The right of their maintenance.

- *a.* The general practice of civilized governments to maintain such schools.
- *b.* National strength related to civilization; *i. e.*, to sciences, literature, and art.
- *c.* The duty of governments to promote learning.
- *d.* The usefulness of higher instruction for the general good.

The maintenance at public expense of institutions for higher instruction is based on usefulness; that of common schools, on necessity.

DISCUSSION OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

[REPORTED BY JAMES H. BAKER.]

Mr. Hinsdale, referring to the definition of the Public School given in the paper, asked if "training" was not incidental to higher instruction as well as to elementary.

Mr. Soldan replied that such was the view taken in the report, although, perhaps not evident from the order of statement.

President Hagar—With reference to higher instruction, would it do to insert, "instruction in and training through" sciences, literature, etc.?

Mr. White—I am pleased with the statement made in the report as to the function of the Public school. To make the end of public instruction the development of manhood is a broader view than to regard it as training for citizenship. The school does not exist for the state; good citizenship is not the end; it is not e end of the school or of any other institution. The State exists as a means for n's well-being. The school exists for the development of all the highest possi- ities of man. It happens, however, that the perfect man is a good citizen. en the manhood principle is acknowledged, we have a philosophic basis for the cussion of everything connected with the function of the school. We cannot w a line between a public school education and any other school education. e work of the school should not be limited to what church and family can not in the way of education. Whatever helps to develop the highest manhood ngs to the school. In response to a question from Mr. Sheldon, Mr. White inued—There is no absolute line limiting public education.

r. Brown—Certain things belong to the schools, others to other institutions. family does not furnish the intellectual element in education, hence that is unction of the school. The people have the right to determine what belongs e work of the school. By general consent, intellectual training is made the ion of the public school. Moral training belongs to the school in conjunc- vith the family. Moral training comes in incidentally in connection with the ic work of the school. All institutions, as family, church, are for the edu- of manhood. The specific work of each is to be considered.

Sheldon—Would you ignore physical training ?

Brown—Bain is right in stating that the school must assume a certain sibility. The degree of health with which a pupil enters the school is to ntained. Also instruction in hygiene should be given.

White asked for a re-reading of what Mr. Harris said in his report upon this

Brown agreed with the statements of Mr. Harris.

Hinsdale—Mr. Brown, is it your opinion that the family is better prepared children moral than intellectual training?

Brown—An important work of the school is the training of the will; should be sustained, if they had no further use than to train the will. In lucation the work of the school is co-ordinate with that of the church and ily.

ent Hagar—What do you say with reference to instruction in the effects of ts and narcotics ?

own—It is put forward as intellectual instruction.

eldon—Is it correct to call it intellectual instruction ?

own—The people so put it.

ite—Is it here assumed that right knowledge leads to right conduct ?

wn—Yes.

e—That manhood is the end, is true of all good institutions. Come n the higher and broader view to consider special functions. The high- he purpose of all institutions.

se—How can we gauge a man, except in view of the institutions among ives ? The man can not be separated from the purposes of the particu- n which he lives. Mr. White, believing as he does, made a mistake in the report of the Committee. The report says "manhood as deter- the genius of the institutions."

e—True, we can not view manhood as isolated from the state ; but the for the manhood, not the manhood for the state.

olson—An important work of the schools is to make homogeneous itizens. This is not done by the family or the church.

n here explained that the report recognized the sacredness of individual right and the need of homogeneity in sentiment and action among the citizens of a state.

Mr. Hinsdale—There is confusion in the minds of the people as to the function of the public school. Some claim that the right of the state to educate depends upon its right to defend itself; on the principle that, "if a state may hang, it may also educate." The present drift is toward the idea that schools are for discipline. One man says that broad manhood, another that citizenship is the end of education. Ideas upon the subject should be more definite. Whether education should aim at the highest manhood may be a question of expediency. That aim might imply the study of art, foreign travel, etc.

Mr. White—Might the work of the schools properly tend to change the character of civilization?

Mr. Soldan here remarked that the spirit of the paper included the old view that the state educates for self-defence, and also the theory that the state educates for the good of the individual. He added, the state educates to make civilization possible. The state has a right to do many things which are not a duty; the decision rests with the people.

Mr. White—*Right* of the state to furnish means for higher education also means *duty*.

Mr. Soldan—Expediency is sometimes quite as powerful a motive as necessity. The right of the state to educate should be limited to its inclination to educate.

Mr. Hoose—Higher education used to be placed before elementary; the idea changed when the idea of government changed. Has England made any progress in the conception of public schools since 1870? I am persuaded that she has; she has had schools for centuries, but not public schools as conceived at the present day. Germany has had schools for centuries, but the public school is of recent years. The changes in the conception of the function of the school have followed the changes of the purposes of governments towards schools. The same phases of change have appeared in our own history. In colonial times the state wanted educated clergymen and it established higher schools to prepare them. When the form of the government changed to that of a Republic, the conception of the function of schools changed to that which survives to-day in our public school system—an educated citizen. The state creates the school for its own purposes, as the report recites.

Mr. White called for a re-reading of the part of the report stating the function of the church, after which he remarked that there was no such distinction between public schools and church schools as that suggested in the report, the body of the instruction in the two classes of schools being the same.

Mr. Soldan—The paper distinguishes between church education and school education, not between church schools and state schools.

Mr. Brown, after some explanations by Mr. Soldan of terms defined in the report, stated that the specific function of every institution should be defined. The incidental functions may vary with circumstances. There is a use for all institutions, for family, for state, for church. Such institutions are universities for the graduates of the schools.

Mr. Hinsdale pointed to what seemed to him a discrepancy in the report between the theory that the state should educate and the theory that the state should limit itself to the "least amount of government."

Mr. Soldan claimed that the discrepancy was only apparent; that the individual had a right to all his rights, except those necessary for the existence of the state. The least right of government is to exist. Education is necessary for the government to exist.

Mr. Baker referred to Mr. Soldan's objection to compulsory education, and asked what he would do with the "street Arab" who grew up in ignorance, vice, and indolence from no fault of his own, receiving training neither for citizenship nor for manhood.

Mr. Soldan replied that the duty of the state was determined to a certain extent by expediency, although reasonable influences should be employed to induce the people to use the privileges of the schools.

Mr. Jones called the attention of the Committee to the expression, "instruction n the sciences, literature and art of modern civilization," used in the report, sking if it was the intention of the Committee to shut out other literature and rt than that of "modern civilization."

Mr. Soldan—The idea is not to be exclusive, as modern civilization rests on all hat is best in the past.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

THE RELATION OF HIGH SCHOOLS TO COLLEGES.

[Presented by E. W. Coy.]

The American high school and the American college are in their origin entirely independent of each other. The college was in existence long before the high school, although the old grammar schools, which may be considered as the forerunners of the modern high school, were soon established to serve as feeders for the colleges.

The colleges are, to a large extent, the creatures of the various religious denominations, and, while open to all comers, they look especially to their respective denominations for sympathy and support. They are not properly a part of any established system of schools, but are independent institutions, having no organic connection with other educational institutions, whether below them or above them.

The high school, on the other hand, though historically connected with and related to the early grammar schools, is chiefly an outgrowth and development from the schools below. The system of which it forms a part exhibits a regular succession of studies and gradation of work from the lowest primary school through all the intermediate grades to the close of the high school course. The high school completes the public school system, so far as that system depends upon local support and patronage. It has close and vital organic relations with the schools below, but it stands in no such relations to the schools above, unless it be to the State Universities that have been organized, to complete the public school system.

The main purpose of the high school is not to prepare its students to enter college or any other higher institution of learning. But few high schools in the country can count ten per cent. of their entering classes among those who intend to continue their studies beyond the high school. For the great mass of these students the high school course will, and of necessity must, be the completion of their education in school. The chief work, then, of the high school is to give these the best preparation possible under the circumstances for the duties of life. This must be done without regard to what may be deemed the requisite preparation for admission to a higher institution. If, however, as has been sometimes maintained, that course which is best for those who intend to pursue their studies through the college and university, is also best for those who may drop out at any given point, hen the main work of the high school will be the best preparation for he higher institution. But this doctrine has not yet been generally ccepted, or, at least, not generally acted upon, in our educational rangements.

The high school, then, in its origin and organization, and in its main rk is without relation to the college. In its origin it is as independen- nt of the college as the college is of it ; in its organization it stands ated to what is below rather than to what is above ; and in its main k it has a function to perform that is peculiar to itself, and that is pleted when its curriculum is finished.

ut the preparation of students for college is widely recognized as a timate and important part of the work of the high school. And y is it held to this duty. The community, through its system of ic instruction, cannot afford to discourage or discountenance those desire to secure for themselves a liberal education. It should r hold out to them every inducement to continue their studies as and as far as possible. Again, it is better for the high schools selves that they should do this work. The brightest and most ising of the students are generally found among those who wish pare for college, and it is for the best interests of the high schools hey should retain these. They tend to give a better tone and a standard of scholarship to the whole school. Their example in hool and their success in higher institutions incite others to their example and give the school a worthy reputation.

true that the high schools have not done as much as might be d of them in preparing students for college. The reasons for not difficult to find. In the first place, in almost every com- that maintains a high school will be found some who have no appreciation of the value of higher education, or who think public should not be taxed to pay for preparing boys or girls college. In some communities, a majority hold these senti- It is not, perhaps, occasion for surprise that in this age of development, and in this country where the attention and of men have been so exclusively devoted to the conquest of nd to the gaining of a livelihood or winning a fortune, a liberal education, the value of which cannot easily be estimated in the circulating medium, should be counted by many as a useless luxury or an extravagant ornament. In the eye of the mercantile and business world, the man who reads Plato and Horace, or who has learned to penetrate the mysteries of the heavens and the earth, is a very insignificant creature, compared with the man who can corner the wheat market and come out with a half million clear profit. And so it comes to pass that the higher education often receives less encouragement than it deserves. But with maturer years and more settled habits of thought and action, will doubtless come a sounder judgment in these matters.

The school reflects pretty clearly the prevailing spirit of the community. Boys are over anxious for their school days to end that they may engage in business, or hurry, half prepared, into a profession. After they have reached the high school, they begin to count the years spent in obtaining an education as lost or wasted, and they cannot afford the time required for a college course. Sometimes the whole plan and administration of the public school system tend to foster the sentiment that the student who has finished the curriculum of the high school has all the education that anybody need to aspire after. The high school is called the people's college, and the notion that its work is a finality is encouraged by elaborate commencement exercises, conferring of diplomas, and pronouncing affecting farewells, as if there were nothing more beyond. All of these things lead the young graduate to think that his education is completed, and that he is now ready to cope with anything or anybody.

And if the high school has thus stood with its back towards the college, the college has not always presented a friendly face to the high school. Instead of cultivating amicable relations with it, it has too often occupied the position of a disinterested spectator or an active opponent. Unfriendly criticism or open hostility has been met with where encouragement and support might have been expected. While the State universities have shown a disposition to meet the high school courses of study with corresponding courses in their own curricula, the old-fashioned colleges have been very slow to adopt such innovations upon long-established custom. Seeing but few recruits coming to it from the high school, the college has come to look elsewhere for a supply, and the gap between the two, instead of being closed up, has rather grown wider.

Such being the position occupied by the high school and the college, what can be done to bring these two classes of institutions into closer and more harmonious relations with each other?

If we had a consistent, coherent, educational system, reaching from
he primary school to the university, so that the youth could proceed
y regular steps from the entrance to the exit, as is now the case up to
nd through the high school, then there would be no question here to
e discussed.

But as we pass beyond the high school we find a break—a lack of
onnection—between what has gone before and what is to come after.
t is best for the colleges as well as the high schools that, if possible,
his break should be closed up. Wherever this has been done, the
umber of students passing from the high schools to the colleges has
reatly increased.

But many difficulties meet us upon the very threshold of this subject.
n the first place there are high schools and high schools, just as there
re colleges and colleges. Any public school that is engaged chiefly
the work next above the elementary, or common school branches is
lled a high school. It is an institution for secondary education.
he character and amount of work done in these schools varies largely,
nd hence the training and information obtained by a high school
ourse are very different in different schools. The term "college" is
ill more loosely applied. Some colleges would be very poor high
hools, while, for admission to others, the student requires the best
reparation that our best high schools can give. They are institutions
artly for secondary and partly for higher education. Now to bring
to harmonious relations two classes of institutions neither of which
hibits any considerable family likeness among its constituent mem-
rs, would evidently be impracticable. But there is a good degree of
milarity among high schools of the better class, just as there is among
lleges of the better class, and between such high schools and such
lleges it may be possible to establish closer relationship than at
esent exists. Any plan that will accomplish this result will also
nd to improve the standard of the high schools, and to give greater
iformity to the work of the colleges.

Many attempts have been made to bring about this result. In many
the States at different times representatives of the colleges and rep-
sentatives of the high schools have met and conferred together upon
is subject, but such meetings and conferences have generally ended
st about where they began. The latest attempt of this kind of which
e have any information is that recently made in New England. In
sponse to an appeal from the teachers of the secondary schools, the
ssociation of New England Colleges appointed a commission, the

purpose of which is to secure uniformity in the examinations for admission to college. This commission has been in existence but a short time, has met with only partial success. As it has no power to enforce anything, it can hardly be expected to accomplish great results.

The plan which has been followed by Michigan University for the last twelve or fourteen years seems to have worked very satisfactorily. In accordance with this plan, whenever any high school wishes to enter into more intimate relations with the university, a committee of the faculty of the university is appointed to visit such school and examine into the organization, course of study, character of work done, etc., and if these are found satisfactory, the school is placed upon the list of approved schools. The graduates of these schools, who present themselves with a satisfactory certificate from the principal, are admitted to the university classes without examination. If any of these approved schools are found to be failing to maintain the requisite standard of scholarship, they are liable to be dropped from the list. Under the working of this plan, the high schools of that State have been greatly stimulated and their work materially improved. But while this plan has worked well with Michigan University in its somewhat peculiar situation, it might not accomplish equally good results if adopted by other institutions under other circumstances. The attempts, thus far mentioned, to bring the high schools and colleges into working relations have been made upon the purely voluntary principle ; that is, they have not been founded upon any legislative enactment. Two States have undertaken to accomplish this result by means of law.

In the year 1881, the State of Minnesota passed a law, still in force, establishing a "High School Board," for the encouragement of higher education in the State. This Board consists of three members, the Governor of the State, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the President of the University of Minnesota. The law provides for granting pecuniary aid to such high schools as shall have "regular and orderly courses of study embracing all the branches prescribed as prerequisite for admission to the collegiate department of the University." The visitation and inspection of the schools is provided for, and also examinations of schools under the direction of the Board. Certificates of the Board are accepted on application for admission to the University. The design of the law is to bring the high schools of the State into close relations with the University, and has resulted in multiplying and improving the high schools, and in leading many students of these schools to pursue a university course.

But the New York plan seems in many respects to be the most com- lete and satisfactory of any that has yet been tried. At the risk of epeating what is already well known, I will give a brief outline of it. he Board of Regents of the State of New York has been in existence r more than a century. It consists at present of twenty-three men, ho are invested by law with the power to grant charters to colleges d academies, and to annul the same for good cause shown, to confer grees, and in general to visit and inspect the colleges, academies, and hools of the State, and to examine into the condition of education d make an annual report to the legislature. Once a year what is lled a Convocation is held. This is composed of the Board of Re- nts, and the officers of all colleges, normal schools, academies, and ademical departments of high schools in the State. The object is to nsider educational questions of general interest to the members of e Convocation. The legislature appropriates $40,000 annually to be portioned among the academies and high schools of the State. The gents hold three examinations each year simultaneously in these hools, and the distribution of this appropriation is determined by the sults of these examinations, each school receiving in proportion to e number passing the tests successfully. The diploma of the Board Regents, showing that the candidate has passed their examination tisfactorily, is accepted for admission by nearly all the colleges of e State.

This plan may not be perfect in all respects, but without some body e the Board of Regents of New York, or the High School Board of innesota, that shall have supervising power over the colleges and gh schools, there does not seem to be much hope of establishing any ry close relationship between the two classes of institutions. With ch central authority, armed with adequate power, there may possibly developed, what the present relations between high schools and col- ges does not promise, viz.: a system of education having something consistency and completeness, extending from the primary school rough the college and university.

But no plan that can be devised will work successfully, unless the gh schools are manned with teachers who are in hearty sympathy th the higher education. Teachers who do not themselves know the lue of college training cannot be expected to awaken among their dents any great desire for such training. The high school should in the hands of teachers who, while recognizing the fact that the rger part of the youth under their charge must of necessity end their schooling with the high school, yet will not forget that for many of them a more extended course is both practicable and desirable. These they will encourage and, if possible, induce them to shape their studies with a view to a college course. They will act upon the conviction that a half dozen boys liberally educated means much more to the community than many times that number half educated. They will labor to direct the thought of the school not merely to the finishing of the high school course, but to that course as one stage on the way to a liberal culture. The spirit that animates the teacher animates the school, and much will have been done to bring the high school and the college into closer relationship, when there shall have been placed in every high school teachers who fully appreciate the value of a college education, and who will enkindle in their pupils a desire for the fullest and highest culture within their reach.

E. W. Coy, *Chairman*,
D. N. Camp,
John Hancock.

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING PAPER.

[REPORTED BY B. A. HINSDALE.]

Mr. King asked, whether, in the statements in relation to the origin of colleges, reference was made to all colleges.

Mr. Coy replied that colleges of the old type were meant.

Mr. Baker—President Eliot has expressed the opinion that in the future it will be found that the high school course, which is best to fit pupils for life, is also best to fit them for college. This is my own opinion. A full reconciliation of the high school and the college can be effected, and I would suggest a committee to report on the details of the subject.

Mr. Hancock—The statement that the high school and the college are not in due relation, is a fact; the question is, should it be a fact? The difficulty is, that the high school wants to do more then fit for college—it wants to make a preparation for practical life over and above such preparation.

In reply to a question, Mr. Coy explained that the report meant the American college, and the American high school.

Mr. Hoose stated this to be the order of development in New York: The college was established; then the Board of Regents was created; next, the Regents fostered academies. The high school of our time is practically another form of the academy.

Mr. Sheldon asked how the statement of the report that the high school was created without reference to the college, could be reconciled with the Massachusetts legislation in regard to grammar schools in which Latin and Greek were taught.

Mr. Coy said the old academy was related to the college, but the academy was not the progenitor of the high school.

Mr. White asked, whether in New England the high school has not been evolved from the ancient grammar school.

Mr. Sheldon affirmed such to be the fact; and said that the Boston Latin School is the lineal descendent of one of those schools.

Mr. Coy said this was no doubt true as to some parts of the country; but, generally, the high school has been evolved from the elementary school, and has really no relation in its origin to the college.

Mr. Hancock affirmed Mr. Coy's statement to be true of Ohio. There the high school has been created since 1847.

Mr. Hoose said that in New York the high schools are a development from the lementary school, and they are absorbing the academies.

Mr. Greenwood—There are two sides to the shield, the historical and the modern. n the West, the high school performs the two functions of fitting for college and or practical life.

Mr. Hinsdale said that before 1847, Ohio was full of academies; that these ademies did the same things that the high school does now,—fitted for college d prepared for practical life; and he asked, whether the norm and model of the gh school, after all, is not the academy.

Mr. Tappan said this was the case. Besides, in some cases, the head of the ademy became the high school principal. Some of the old academies still exist Ohio.

Mr. King—The affiliations of the high school with the college are less intimate an were the affiliations of the academy with the college; the high school atmos-ere is less academical and more practical; it is desirable that the high school ome more academical.

Ir. Gove—This question of relation has been discussed for twenty-five years. e high schools have always been willing to co-operate with the colleges; and y are now anxious to adjust all points of difference, so far as the public will the bills involved in such adjustment. The solution of the problem lies with colleges. An American boy can be fitted for college at the age of thirteen, l the high schools are ready to multiply the number of boys sent to college by 20, or 30, if the colleges will make this possible by modifying their courses of dy. The colleges demand as a preparation, only Latin, Greek, and Mathe-tics.

r. Brown—The historical discussion is important, as showing the trend of lic opinion. In Indiana, the high school was established as a feeder for the ege. But the high school has taken on the additional function of fitting ils immediately for the duties of life. The colleges have not responded to ular wants, as the high schools have done. The college should supplement high school.

r. Greenwood—There are differences which should be kept prominently in . The academy and college are not supported upon the same plan as is the ern high school, which is a part of the public school system.

gain, the state system of schools includes the county schools, city schools, led and high schools, normal schools, and the State university.

e high school should branch out into three directions,—the classic, the mixed, the business courses of study. Each should be complete within itself. The sical course should prepare the pupils for admission to college or to the uni-ity.

e mixed course is partly classical and partly scientific, while the business se should partake largely of the practical phase, and for girls it should in-e stenography and type-writing.

Upon the part of the college, as well as upon that of the high school, the plan of passing from the lower to the higher is not difficult. The high school course—the classical—must be adapted to the collegiate work, and the educators of the newer states are quietly adjusting this matter for themselves. In fact, it is already settled in several of the states.

Mr. Baker—The question is national and not merely local. This Council, or a committee of the General Association, should make a special study of the work of the high school and its relation to the college, with a view to securing certain uniform requirements, based upon rational grounds. The problems connected with the subject are important, among which are (1) the question whether a high school course should be disciplinary or a preparation for business; (2) requirements for admission to college; (3) where does the university begin?

Mr. King thought the difficulty not insuperable, or even great. Culture is the ground on which to put the case, and if that is done the public will respond.

Mr. Pickard said the adjustment had been made, so far as the high schools and the State University of Iowa are concerned. Both have made some concessions, and both are the stronger for so doing. The university had modified its course of study to meet the necessities of the high schools. The range of study has been made more varied. Stress is laid on preparation in English. Latin is required, and Greek is not. In Iowa, the high school commencement has been laid aside with good results; in room of the boys' and girls' orations and essays, an address is made, generally by some college man, on some educational topic. There is this marked difference between the orations and the address. The first consider the high school course as completing a liberal education; the address turns the minds of the graduates to something yet to be done.

At present, the worst feature is a parallelism, for a distance, of the high school and college courses. The idea must be abandoned that the high school looks to the intellect alone; the high school and the college alike must look to character. The people of Iowa support the high schools the more willingly because they fit pupils for college. We must not suppose that the high school is a new function; it is a new name for an old function. Mr. Pickard added, that he himself was prepared for college in a public school, but not a high school.

Mr. Stearns said the problem of adjustment had been solved in Wisconsin much as in Iowa. He then raised the question, whether there is not danger of overdoing "adjustment." If the public are impressed with the idea that the great function of the high school is to fit for college, the public may have less interest in the high school.

Mr. Hoose defined the relations of Cornell University to the public school system of New York.

The State law provides for annual examinations for Cornell; these are held by local school men; the candidates for the university must have been in attendance upon the common school or academy for six months within the last school year. The law provides also that vacancies in the representation may be filled by the Department of Public Instruction. There may be one student for each assembly district, or 128 in the State; this gives over 500 students at a time, counting a course of four years for each student.

Mr. Camp—In the East, we lay stress on broad, high, and liberal culture. The eastern colleges, like Yale, would not make such concessions as had been made in Iowa and Wisconsin. In former times the pastors' studies sent many pupils to college. These studies were preparatory schools. The high school does not always give the best preparation for college, and yet the eastern high schools are nding more and more pupils to college. The great thing is to fill the public ind with a lofty ideal of culture and manhood.

Mr. Jones asked, whether the term college, as used in the report, included the gher polytechnic schools.

Mr. *Coy* replied that it did not. Mr. Coy then said:—It is very desirable that re should be college courses that will meet the ordinary high school courses; many pupils who enter the high school with no intention of going further, ide, when half or three fourths of the way through the school, to take a col- course.

hey receive, in the high school, the impulse or inspiration that leads them to decision. Unless there be such courses in the college, it is necessary for the ent to go back and begin a new course of study in the high school that will m to enter college. This is very often entirely impracticable.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

[Presented by E. C. Hewett.]

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

1. The greatest need of our schools everywhere is well qualified teachers. This has always been true; and we see no prospect of a time when it will not be true. It needs to be borne in mind that our teachers are of two classes, viz., those with whom teaching is a vocation, and those with whom it is merely a temporary occupation; the latter class is much the larger. Those who propose to make teaching a vocation are likely to be willing to spend considerable time and effort in fitting themselves for their work. Those with whom it is a temporary occupation are likely to take little pains to prepare for it, and perhaps some pressure is necessary to cause them to do anything at all, in this way.

Teachers' Institutes may be of great service to both classes; but it would seem that they must be adapted primarily to the needs of the second class, especially to those who, with little or no special training, are already at work in the school-room. Professor Payne says, "The distinctive function of the institute is to provide some training for non-professional teachers."

MEANS OF PREPARATION.

2. The means of professional preparation open to those who propose to teach, or who are already teaching, are five in number.

(a) Normal Schools.
(b) Books and Periodicals.
(c) Teachers' Meetings.
(d) Observation.
(e) Experience in the School-room.

The preparation necessary to the teacher is fourfold. It has regard

(1) To the subjects to be taught,
(2) To the being to be taught,
(3) To the principles and methods of teaching and managing,
(4) To the mechanics of the school,—organizing, disciplining, etc.

TEACHERS' MEETINGS.

3. Three distinct kinds of teachers' meetings may be recognized,
iz., (a) Associations, (b) Drills, (c) Institutes. The first are com-
osed of equals, coming together as deliberative bodies, and governed
y parliamentary rules. The second are gatherings, usually continuing
veral weeks, for perfecting the members in the subject-matter
be taught, or in preparing for the test of an ordinary examination
a teacher's certificate. They bear various names, as Drills, County
rmals, Institutes, etc., but they are really short-term schools; and
ir work is usually professional in a secondary sense only.
nstitutes, as we use the term, usually continue for a week or less,
are composed, for the most part, of those who are active teachers.
y partake somewhat of the nature of a school, or a drill; but with a
r purpose, and a mingling of instruction in matter with instruction
hilosophy and methods. Their working is hampered by two seri-
limitations, viz., brevity of time, and probable variety in the capac
nd previous training of their members.

PURPOSES OF AN INSTITUTE.

The Institute should serve at least three purposes.

. It should awaken its members to the nobleness of their work
o an appreciation of their needs,—it should arouse something of a
sprit du corps. "The best work of the institute should be regard-
the creation of the scholarly and the professional spirit, a desire
h high scholastic attainments, and an ambition to attain to ar-
xcellence in teaching." It is expected that these results will
from meeting with fellow-workers, from exercises conducted by
s of large attainments, enthusiasm and wide repute, and from
leals of what teachers ought to be, and to do, as may be set be-
m by the lectures and typical teaching of able and experienced

In order that these results may follow, it is apparent that the
s must be in the hands of superior persons; no place is more
by a person of inferior ability, or small experience, than that of
or or instructor in an institute. Nor is it any place for a per-
imless loquacity, or for a "crank." Ill-chosen and unfit con-
and teachers are the sufficient cause of failure in hundreds of
s.

The institute should give actual instruction, (a) in subjects to
t, (b) in the principles and methods of teaching, and (c) in
of organizing, managing, and governing schools.

Nothing complete or extensive can be attempted in the branches of knowledge;—but the previous knowledge of the members may be reviewed, clarified and classified, and something may be done, both in imparting new knowledge, and in leading to the sources of knowledge and suggesting methods as to its acquisition. The wise conductor can do a most valuable service for the young members by recommending specific books for their study, by giving hints on study and reading, and by convincing the young, inexperienced, and thoughtless, that the field before them is a wide one, and that they are not likely to become proficient in it in a day, or without long and toilsome effort. One of the most common and most disgusting exhibitions of young teachers is often seen, in their assumption that they are masters of everything pertaining to their work; in the cant phrase they show that, in their own estimation, they "know it all." An institute ought to do much to show such persons their present lack, and to awaken in them an ambition for a wide and generous culture.

Besides assisting the members to increase their knowledge of the matter of instruction, a beginning, at least, can be made in the study of the nature and laws of mind-activity and mind-growth, and in the principles and methods of instruction that grow out of such a study. Not only can the young teacher be instructed in such knowledge, and shown where to find a large and available store of it in books, but he may be put on the track of a fruitful and effective study of his own mind and of the minds of others,—especially those of the children under his care.

3d. A well conducted institute, with its daily work and evening lectures, may do very much to arouse an interest in the community, to disseminate true ideas of education, its importance and methods, and to correct those mistakes and misapprehensions among the people which so often are the chief hindrances to the best success of the school enterprise.

METHODS OF AN INSTITUTE.

5. 1st. *The Head.* An institute should resemble a school, rather than a parliamentary body. It should be under the direction of *one head*, and all its exercises should be in accordance with a comprehensive and well-digested *plan.* The conductor should be a person well versed in the philosophy of education, having a large experience in the actual work of teaching and possessed of rare skill and tact, both in the art of instruction and in intercourse with men.

Under such a conductor, assistants of less age and acquirement may made very useful. But crude, unskilful, impassive teachers can ver do good work in an institute.

To say the least, the programme of an institute should be as carefully nned, and as closely followed as the programme of a good graded ool. It will be a great help in giving point and precision to the rk, in preventing waste of time, in impressing the value of plan and ler on the members; and—not least,—in shutting out the rambling, less talk of the "distinguished visitor."

nd. The best methods of work will combine the lecture and the re- tion. The limit of time and the imperfect grading forbid a too strict erence to the school-room methods; but the mere lecture will not do two reasons; first, much of it is likely to be lost on a large majority he members, and, second, it will not resemble sufficiently the work of school-room, for which the institute is to prepare. The institute ure should show no attempt at mere popular effect, nor at oratori- r rhetorical display. It should be clear, plain, pointed, and should elivered slowly, and with full opportunity for questions from the ers. The listeners should take notes of the lecture, and it will be cellent plan to require a short recitation upon the lecture, on the ollowing its delivery.

Whenever possible, it is desirable that the institute should be d, at least for a part of its work. With the grades, the work can ought nearer the school-room type, because the number to be t is smaller, and they are of a more uniform capacity. Well-pre- , experienced teachers sometimes complain that the institute has ng for them, especially if they have attended the last institute in me town or county. And these excuses are often well-founded. persons might find profitable work in a higher grade; and it is esirable that their presence should be secured, and that it should ource of profit to themselves, as well as to others.

We think it very desirable that a part of the work should con- model exercises; that is, of the teaching of classes of children by ne who can show, by skilful work, the application of some of nciples theoretically taught.

Evening lectures should be given for the benefit of the people, the town where the institute is held, and in neighboring towns. lectures should have a direct bearing on questions of education, lly in those phases of it which particularly concern the people. In rk, the conductor may call to his aid, not only eminent teachers who are not instructors in the institute, but clergymen, lawyers, editors, any one who has something to say, and can say it effectively. The success of our educational enterprise rests ultimately with the people; it depends upon their earnestness and intelligence. And we venture the opinion that the community, as a whole, need arousing and instructing in educational matters quite as much as the teachers do. A series of good institutes, conducted as they should be, ought to produce a genuine educational "revival," in a State or County, among the people, no less than among the teachers.

It must be remembered that little or nothing in the work of the institute should be regarded as complete; it must stand to the members as suggestive, typical, or introductory. Nowhere is it more necessary that those who would gain the most profit should be able to "take a hint."

RELATION OF INSTITUTES TO NORMAL SCHOOLS.

6. From what we have just said, it is evident that the true work of an institute can never be antagonistic to the work of the normal school, although, to a degree, it is of the same kind. Nor can it take the place of, or be a substitute for, the work of the normal school. But, for multitudes who never could, or never would, go to a normal school, it will do something to remedy the loss of that training which such a school would give,—that is, the institute is a supplement to the normal school. Also, one who has taken the "hints" that a good institute will give is better prepared to study professional books, to observe the teaching of others, and to profit by his own experience.

But, to many, the interest awakened by the institute, and the insight there gained, into the need and the nature of professional preparation for teaching, will be the inspiring motives which will lead them to go to the normal school, for a fuller draught of that for which a taste has been awakened. In this way, as experience has shown in a multitude of cases, the institute becomes a feeder to the normal school. Many thorough, professional teachers, graduates of normal schools, would have plodded on in the school room, in a dull, inefficient way, or would have left it in disgust, if the institute had not come to them as a revelation and an inspiration.

C. C. Rounds, *Chairman.*
E. C. Hewett,
D. B. Hagar,
Robert Allyn.

DISCUSSION OF THE PAPER ON TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

[REPORTED BY H. S. JONES.]

Mr. Hancock—Did the Committee state that the object of attending the insti- ute was to enable the teacher to get a certificate?

Mr. Hewett—That may be true in some cases, but it is not in the report.

Mr. Hancock—I am sorry to say that it is quite common.

Mr. Sheldon—Are institutes generally followed by examinations for certificates?

Mr. Dickinson—It is not done in New England.

Mr. Sheldon—Is it not true that the same topics appear in the examinations as ere presented in the institute?

Mr. Hewett—The practice of making the institute a preparation for the exam- ition is weakening. The report is ideal in several points.

Ir. Rounds—What is the object of the report?

Ir. Hewett—To show what an institute should be.

r. Hailmann—Sometimes I have noticed examinations after institutes. And etimes superintendents have joined in organizing an institute from which they ived an income, and teachers attended because it paid in obtaining a certifi- .

r. Greenwood—Some of the states have required the institute to be followed n examination. Some go to pass the examination,—boys and girls who ct to become teachers. The questions are prepared by the State Superinten- the Conductor knowing nothing of the questions.

. Jones—What states require an examination after an institute?

Greenwood—Kansas and, perhaps, Illinois.

Hancock—How are we to get instructors that possess the power to inspire? stitute that has not a large degree of inspiration in its instruction, is a dry most useless affair.

Hinsdale—Does not the popularity of an institute instructor often depend his success as a story-teller?

Rounds—Does the conducting of the work of an institute with reference to mination result in predominance of instruction over inspiration, and in a cy to cram?

Vhite—Why use the term "drills?"

Iewett—Because a so-called institute that runs on quite a while is a short- hool.

'appan—What is the distinction between "drills" and "institutes?"

reenwood—Is not the Committee's ideal institute the old-fashioned ?

ewett—Hardly.

nsdale—The report seems unfortunate in the use of the term "drill."

ailmann—Instruction and inspiration should go hand in hand. The more the instruction, the more inspiration it affords.

ite—The Committee have made a fine presentation; but my judgment e institutes have failed more commonly in repeating what the school do. Some new view may be presented concerning a branch of study, or s neglected may be brought to the front, but the consideration of studies ould be incidental. The principles of the science and art of teaching presented centrally and earnestly to the minds of the teachers. Too ators of standing and influence speak slightingly of the principles of Time has been frittered away on puzzles in grammar and arithmetic in ass the examination, when the institute needed professional uplifting.

The Council should come out strongly in favor of making the institute a means of professional training.

Mr. Tappan—It seems best to make the branches to be taught incidental.

Mr. Richards—What would Mr. White do in the long-term institutes, whose members are sadly deficient in elementary knowledge?

Mr. White—The report calls a long-term institute a "drill."

Mr. Tappan—The word "institute" seems best for all meetings of teachers for improvement. The people understand it. The new name, "drill," will hardly hold its place.

Mr. Greenwood—If the old-fashioned institute is meant, the position of the report is right; but many teachers are weak in the common branches, and the best way to present principles is in class work.

Mr. Stearns—Have we any experience that shows that professional work can be given for five or ten days? It seems that consideration of the branches must come first.

Mr. Hailmann—We must consider things as they are; a large part of the institute need academic training. Why not have an academic and a professional department in the institute, the members giving one year to the academic and the next to the professional?

Mr. Hinsdale—Certain questions should be asked before settling upon a plan for an institute. (1) How long is it to be? (2) What is the condition of the community as to culture and coöperation? (3) What is the history of the institute in the locality considered? Time, place, and history must be considered. Institute instructors may be divided into three classes: (1) The skilful solver of puzzles in grammar, arithmetic, &c. (2) He who charms by story-telling. (3) The person who can acceptably present educational principles.

Mr. White—Thirty years' observation shows me that there is no room for failure, if the instructors are competent to present the living truth. I have often seen the most intense interest from the beginning to the close of the institute, where the instruction was principally professional. We must take a step higher and examine in the science and art of teaching.

Mr. Greenwood—Are not teachers examined in professional knowledge?

Mr. Hailmann—Yes, as a farce.

Mr. Tappan—I have known some thorough professional examinations.

Mr. Dickinson—What we can hope to do is to teach principles and methods. The teacher should go out and apply them. Much professional instruction affords meager results. The conductor should *teach*; he should not read formal lectures. All professional matter presented should be illustrated by the teaching of school branches. Teachers need to know the end to be secured in teaching a study. Teachers fail in planning educational work, and here the conductor must give aid, so that there shall be much less of aimless effort.

Mr. Hewett—We have all sorts of "institutes," and the term should be limited, cutting off academic drills and formal meetings.

Mr. Stearns—I would widen the term "institute" so as to include ten days.

Mr. Hancock—As to lessons, all instruction is illustrative of method and principles.

Mr. Jones—Last year the state superintendent of New York indirectly shut out "model class exercises" from the institutes, holding that they did little to help on professional ideas.

Mr. Hewett—I would impress upon the Council the importance of having connected with the institute, lectures, that tend to arouse public sentiment in favor of every good thing that educates.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HYGIENE IN EDUCATION.

RELATION OF MENTAL LABOR TO PHYSICAL HEALTH.

[Presented by W. N. Hailmann.]

The term "mental" has been understood to refer to the inner and vard life of feeling, thinking, and willing; the term physical, to the er and outward life of the bodily organs. The two, indeed, seem constitute the opposite, polar forces of life, considered as a unit. mental lies inward, upward, symbolizes, seeks relationship, levi- s; the physical lies outward, downward, assimilates, seeks matter, vitates. The relative energies of these forces determine the drift character of the complex automatism which rules each individual history.

ith reference to the physical, the mental appears involved in the ical as its innermost potentiality, as its soul, its *raison d'etre*, its est outcome. In its evolution it seems to proceed out of the phys- is liberated from the physical; is conditioned by it.

me of these relationships are so apparent that they are quite gen- conceded and regarded. Thus, all educators admit that the l is higher than the physical and is conditioned by the physical; he mental phases of life suffer through neglect or perversion of hysical phases. This has led, in education, to more stringent res for preserving, guarding, and enhancing the physical health dren, and to the growing demand for ample and judicious physi- ining. In short, it is, perhaps, universally admitted that, in ven case, the highest mental life is attainable only through strict ce to the requirements of complete, healthy, physical life.

he other hand, it seems to be less generally appreciated that, the limit of the powers involved, enhanced mentality renders l life, as a whole, not only more complex, but more intense, more s,— lifts it to a higher level of efficiency. It is frequently ed, what demands increasing mentality makes upon all the functions of self-preservation; how extensively nervous organ- draws upon the life-fluids, and consequently urges all blood- and blood-regulating functions to utmost activity.

These functions of self-preservation are, it is true, amply repaid for their increased activity—for the resulting elevation and greater perfection of psychic functions—in foresight, in superior self-adaptation; in short, in the more economic use of the powers; in return secures self-preservation more fully and less expensively. Thus the individual is enabled to economize on the physical side of the functions that tend to the propagation of the species, to devote himself more completely to purposes of self-culture, and to the accumulation of richer legacies of psychic functional power for the benefit of a less numerous, but inwardly and outwardly more favored progeny.

Juvenal's celebrated maxim, which bids us pray for a sound mind in a sound body, is ordinarily used to emphasize the influence of physical organization and vigor on psychic life. This one sided interpretation which makes the mind a passive outcome of physical functions needs modification. We need an interpretation which, while it does not diminish our appreciation of the influence from body to mind, recognizes an, at least, equally active effluence from mind to body—an effluence which, in accordance with the degree of inner, mental soundness, directly strengthens and enhances physical soundness from within.

If it is true that, as Maudsley shows, "internal organs (he refers to the viscera) are not the agents of their special functions only, but by reason of their intimate consent or sympathy of functions they are essential constituents of mental life," it is equally true that physical functions are not merely the outcome of special bodily organs, but are led and directed and co-ordinated in being and purpose by an inner, mental unity, which in the scale of life has laboriously but steadily risen from mere vegetative instinct to the self-consciousness of man, in whom we behold it as a spirit freeing itself from matter, or, rather, using matter for self-appointed purposes. While, on the one hand, we see the mind, with Maudsley, as the crown and consummation of the organic functions as a whole, we see it, on the other hand, as the secret inner spring and true king of all outward physical life. Thus to Milton "the whole man is soul, and the soul man." Thus Swedenborg's angels "discover man's autobiography in his structure."

Now, while it must be admitted that successively higher functions, both of body and mind, make successively greater demands upon the life forces, it cannot be argued from this that excessive activity of any one function reacts unfavorably only in downward directions—i. e., from mind to body. On the contrary, the unfavorable reaction is in both directions, downward and upward through the entire series of connected functions.

Excessive physical development dwarfs the mind, as surely as excessive mental activity dwarfs the body; the head pays for the orgies of the stomach as surely as the stomach pays for the orgies of the head. The same holds good within the limits of psychic function. Thus mental operations rest on memory, but exclusive or excessive attention to the cultivation of memory hinders mental growth and development. Hence the tendency in the practical work of education to train the memory more toward relations than facts, and to render the functions of memory automatic with the smallest possible expenditure of time.

Thus, too, the concentration of nervous force upon intellectual processes reduces the vigor of other functions both upward and downward, affecting not only the functions of vegetative life even unto physical debility, but weakening the powers of reasoning and the will power, even unto gross immorality.

The complexity and difficulty of the problem of determining the extent and character of the influence involved will at once appear, when it is remembered that in all these cases each function reacts again unfavorably, though possibly in a different manner, upon the function by which it has been assailed, and through this upon all connected functions. Thus a perplexing network of retrograde actions and reactions pervades the functions as a whole, and sets the entire being toward disintegration.

In this way it happens that excessive gratification of physical appetites not only dwarfs the mind, but by reaction saps the vigor of the body; that exclusive or excessive burdening of the memory not only hinders higher mental development, but crushes and exhausts memory itself; that excessive concentration of nervous force on intellectual processes not only cramps the functions of vegetative life and imprisons the will, but by reaction destroys even the intellect. Life is so nicely balanced on its pivotal point, that disturbance applied on any side vibrates through the entire structure, and—if the disturbance is sufficiently persistent or rude enough—all will slide or fall into ruin.

Thus, much physical and mental breakdown that is charged to excessive school-work will, on closer inspection, be found chargeable to other causes,—to the drain of developing puberty, to sexual sins, excessive social indulgence, to morbid story-book voracity, and the like, or to the mere absence of suitable physical exercise, to unfavorable surroundings or conditions affecting the vegetative processes of life, and the like.

The problem is still further complicated by the inner differences that become outwardly potent in successive differentiations of higher functions. Although probably subject to the same innermost spiritual law, these new revelations of energy come to us in new and unexpected relationships, whose determination involves untold difficulties, not the least of which is, that the controlling spiritual law can never yield to our finite powers of analysis. This leads to the important inner differentiations between feeling on the one side and thinking and willing on the other. Of these, feeling is the innermost; it represents the immediate effect of influences and inner processes on consciousness. Thinking and willing appear, respectively, as the passive and active reactions of feeling in consciousness. However, the activity of will is chiefly inhibitory, excluding from consciousness feelings that might interfere with the purpose of the mind. Thought, when thus isolated and guarded against disturbance by the will, takes care of itself and sets free suitable conduct. It will be noticed that the clear apprehension of this relationship throws much light on the values of motives. Motives that lie in the object of thought aid the will; whereas, subjective motives keep the will busy in efforts to beat off self. Therefore, ambition, jealousy, envy, and other forms of self-worry very often lead to the breakdown of the will and are fruitful sources of physical and psychical degeneracy; whereas, both body and mind are more generally invigorated by honest objective mental work, by the pure exercise of intellect and reason. There can be little doubt that emotional life thus carves the steps that lead into the abyss of insanity. Ambition to excel others, worry concerning ultimate success, the contemplation of possible disgrace or failure, more particularly when great responsibility is involved, envy, jealousy, and similar manifestations of a morbidly subjective emotional life are among the most potent causes of mental and consequent physical breakdown.

On the other hand, it should be remembered that thought and will spring primarily from subjective feeling; that, therefore, the annihilation of subjective feeling implies the annihilation of thought and will, and that an inordinate suppression of subjective feeling must prove disastrous in another way. A mind thus cut off from its very life-springs is stunted in all its forms of activity, and from obtuseness and helplessness in subjective emergencies gradually glides into the borderland of amentia.

Concentration of mind may be passive, and the loss of self in deep study is by no means an unfailing indication of great active will-power. Indeed, in many cases of "brown study," or of complete absorption of the whole being in some simple occupation, the will has no part whatever. We frequently notice such cases of simple will-less mind engrossment in novel readers whose whole being is taken up with the shifting scenes of their stories.

It is obvious that salvation lies only in harmonious life development, a life development in which mind and body, the inward and outward ctivities, feeling, thought, will, and conduct, seek with equal eager- ess that all-sided, evenly-balanced self-expansion which holds all orthy objects of human life and whose attainment is the problem of ducation.

Still further complications arise from heredity, social contagion, and e influence of surroundings. Heredity is the generic impetus with hich the individual human being is ushered into existence. It nsmits to the individual the accumulated tendencies and velocities of nkind, together with such modifications as tribe, family, and the mediate parents of the child, may have impressed on them. It is basis on which individual manhood and womanhood rest. Through ication, human self-consciousness learns to free it of its terrors and id its possibilities of further development. Yet its laws, though ly understood in a general way, are still little known and appreci- l in their individual applications.

he influence of social contagion is perhaps still less understood and eciated. It is quite apparent, however, in the habits of eating and king, dress and ornamentation, tastes and opinions, even of the emancipated individuals. Persons who have freed themselves of fluence in any direction are looked upon as peculiar, and the l of this calamity perpetuates the most unhygienic habits of eating rinking, the most pernicious fashions of dress, and frequently immoral ways of feeling and thinking, in spite of the most posi- arnings of science and insight. It happens not unfrequently he school is charged with the wreck of body and mind in cases in social contagion alone is to blame. Thus the boy builds a frail of cards, and then blames the first slight tremor of the table on it stands for the downfall of the structure.

ilarly the very complex network of influences in which we are y our surroundings are strangely disregarded on questions like e submitted to your committee. It is true, in the formulation of ey can be eliminated more readily than the deeper influences al contagion and heredity, yet in the observation and investiga- individual cases they play an important part, and must be taken count if we would understand these cases.

For the sake of arriving at satisfactory conclusions with reference to the problem here stated, the writer of this report has examined a number of the best treatises and monographs on psychological and biological subjects, statistical reports, and the reports of official commissions of inquiry. This has, indeed, proved to him a most delightful and highly profitable task, but it has forced upon him the conviction that the data are as yet inadequate for the purposes of your committee. Only a prolonged period of investigation, observation, and experiment can remedy this deficiency. For this purpose the Council of Education—either alone or in connection with other bodies of similar interests—might profitably establish a more permanent commission to gather and arrange the required data, and to submit in periodical reports the results of their inquiries. Such a commission should be sufficiently numerous and enthusiastic to admit of reliable sub-divisions of labor, and should be empowered to add to its number persons specially favored by ability and by facilities for observation, investigation, or experiment. It should carefully sift and arrange the data already on hand, single out doubtful points, and not only propose definite lines of methodical inquiry, but also secure answers in available forms. It should address itself to parents, teachers, physicians, clergymen, superintendents of asylums and prisons, not promiscuously, but thoughtfully, assuring itself that the persons applied to are competent to furnish reliable answers. There should be no hurry in the matter, no impatience, no external compulsion of time or circumstance. Indeed, there is no need of hurry, inasmuch as the periodical reports of the commission of inquiry would secure ample practical outcomes to aid in the work of the day.

The professional character of the Council of Education, the fact of its being a national organization, its permanence, its deep concern in this inquiry, render it peculiarly competent to guide the proposed work. Your committee, therefore, respectfully submit to your consideration the definite proposal to establish a permanent commission of three members of your body, who shall organize and conduct the proposed inquiry in connection with such other persons and suitable organizations as they may from time to time select and secure for this purpose.

W. N. HAILMANN, *Chairman.*

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING REPORT.*

Mr. Hoose—What is, and what is not, excess in physical and mental activity?

Mr. Hailmann—This is the very question, an answer to which is suggested at the end of this paper. The problem is complicated. Excess may be detected by its effect upon the life as a whole.

Mr. Hoose—One becomes strong by laboring up to the maximum of his powers. A child may be required in school to put forth effort to the maximum of his powers daily. Is this excess?

Mr. Hailmann—Yes and no It will be excess if it is done in a one-sided way. Any strain upon the child from the outside will have a tendency to excess.

Mr. Hancock—Would you not have a child work at all if he is weary?

Mr. Hailmann—No, not if the child is forced by external means and motives.

Mr. Greenwood—Will not excess in physical or mental activity produce one-sidedness?

Mr. Hailmann—Yes, if carried to sufficient length.

Mr. Mowry—Does the special training of any one faculty necessarily weaken the others?

Mr. Hailmann—The higher rests upon the lower, the mental upon the physical, reason upon memory, etc. Excessive growth in any one faculty weakens all others. We want facts. Supposed cases do not help us. There must be investigation.

Mr. Rounds—Does excess come from the requirements of the teacher, or from physical and mental conditions?

Mr. Greenwood—Teachers know when a pupil is weary as quickly as a lad knows when the horse under him is weary. Some things may be best for an individual and not best for the race, and the reverse may be true. Those who have lifted up the race have been one-sided men. There may be harmony for the race without uniform symmetry for the individuals.

Mr Allyn—What is excess? If the race is to progress, we must put each boy at his best. The individual symmetry must be sacrificed for racial harmony.

Mr. Stearns—It is not harmonious development that tries to make a boy what he is not inclined to be.

Mr. Hancock—We should cultivate the faculties that are weak.

Mr. Dickinson—Perfect activity consists in all the activity of which a faculty is capable for that time, and with such intensity as requires no external force.

Mr. Baker—The school is to discipline and train the mind for life work; and we must estimate excess in the result, in the effect upon the system, upon the mind. An overdraft upon the nervous force is excess.

Mr. Mowry—So far as school life goes, there should be symmetrical development, and the technical development should come later. In school the teacher's will should be above the pupil's.

Mr. Brown—Stimulate the affirmative possibilities. All education is affirmative. Direct the enthusiasm of the teacher into a study of the individual child. The course of study in the common school is for the sake of symmetry.

Mr. Hancock—I would emphasize symmetry in education.

Mr. Peabody—In making an engine there must be a balancing of parts; but there are different kinds of engines, and each has its own requirements for balancing the parts.

[*The report of the discussion of this paper made by Mr. Tarbell was lost in the mail and could not be recovered. The report given here is taken from the New England Journal of Education of July 21, 1887.]

Mr. Parker—There is a design of the Creator for the human race, and a design for the individual. Education is the working out of God's design in the individual for the human race. We must study this design. We must study the immutable laws; we must apply the conditions for the activity of these laws in working out his design.

Miss Nicholson urged the appointment of a Committee to collect facts for determining the dangers in excess.

Mr. Gove related some experiences in the past in collecting statistics of this kind that were wholly unsatisfactory, and yet it was our only hope.

Mr. Eaton said this was one of the grandest services that could be rendered, and we should find many things already prepared for us by other investigators. The investigations among the defective classes would serve us more than we might at first suspect.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

TEACHERS' TENURE OF OFFICE.

[Presented by E. E. Higbee.]

We have no national system of education. From the Bureau of 'ducation at Washington carefully compiled statistics and circulars ' valuable information are issued, but nothing which carries with it y authority of law.

Each State has its own school system. These State systems, how- er, while differing much in specific details, have many general tures common to all, and we are justified in speaking of an Amer- n system of education in harmony with the peculiar character of political and social institutions. In view of these common fea- s, we feel authorized, in determining the teachers' tenure of e as it now is, to confine ourselves in great measure to the con- ns of school affairs in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, as- d that these conditions must be nearly the same in very many of other States, if not in all.

he selection of teachers, and all contracts relating to their em- ment and compensation, are within the sole jurisdiction of school ls or school directors elected, with but few exceptions, by the e of the various school districts. These district-school boards ge in part from year to year, a certain number of directors going nd new ones coming in each year. On this account, very nat- , the employment of teachers has come to be by contracts g only for one year. In other words, the ordinary practice in ylvania is to hire teachers of our public schools by the year.

ur higher institutions of learning, generally operative as corpo- under State charters, and maintained by gifts and tuition nd not within the jurisdiction of the common-school system, rs are employed with a fixed salary, and their term of office is good behavior. So, also, in our State system of free schools, st advanced schools, generally called " high schools," while in nploying teachers by the year, in fact most generally re-elect the same teachers from year to year. Salaries in these "high schools" are naturally larger than in the lower and subordinate schools, and hence there is not so much temptation for the teachers to change in search of larger compensation.

In our public schools of a lower grade than the "high school," changes are much more frequent. The salaries are generally so small, and varying from district to district and from county to county, that in the search for better compensation we are in great danger of having a large body of itinerant teachers—nomadic educators. Indeed, I may safely say, we have such peripatetics already. There is hardly anything which might be called tenure of office. Everything is left to the mere wish of the directors, on the one hand, and the mere whim of the teachers, on the other.

THE EVIL RESULTS OF SUCH A CONDITION.

As long as a teacher finds that he must be regarded as a hireling, with no guarantee of remaining in office over a year, and with all the uncertainties of an annual election before his vision, and not a member of a profession, properly so called, which claims respect because it requires special and high qualifications, which is recognized in its rights and privileges because it represents an important factor in the social life and advancement of the State, and which commands compensation commensurate with its worth and high responsibilities—so long, we repeat, as a teacher finds himself not connected with a profession, properly so called, and generally recognized, he lacks one of the greatest incentives to professional study, and is tempted to make his teaching not even a calling, but only a stepping-stone to some other work. His zeal and concentration of effort, which alone can make him a master workman, are entirely gone. Indeed, the statement made by the French Commissioners relative to our teachers is not much exaggerated, and in many sections the picture is fully verified. "For many persons this temporary profession is the means of procuring the funds for continuing their studies." "The profession of teachers would appear to be a sort of stage, where the girl waits for an establishment suited to her taste, and the young man a more lucrative position." It is needless to dwell upon the injury done to every teacher by such a "tenure of office," or, rather, want of tenure of office.

But serious as is the injury to the teachers, still more serious is it to the taught, and especially so in their ethical development. That moral-culture which is gained by mutual trials and cares and sympathies and affections—the endearing and ennobling sentiments which grow out of a long-continued relation of master and disciple, the force of which enters and abides in the life through all our years, is almost entirely lost, because our teachers are perpetually changing. Year by year these teachers come and go, and gain but a transient acquaintance with their pupils as they hurry by. They stay not with the children so as to become familiar with their whole family life, or conversant with their temperaments and habits. They abide not with the pupils as long-tried and revered guides (*in parentum loco*), the power of whose guardianship of love grows mightier from year to year. They vanish from view so quickly as to leave no clustering reminiscences for maturing childhood to gather and profit by the delight thereof. Their life, their thought, their high purpose have had no time to enter the child's soul and fill its depths with high hopes and aspirations. They are to the children almost as pedagogic tramps, not teachers; and who can measure the ethical loss there is in all this?

When we bear in mind what broad responsibilities are involved in the relation between teacher and pupil, this loss becomes more apparent. It is true, the relation here referred to is mediated by an organized system, which at the outset is alike external to teacher and pupil. An earnest teacher, however, will strive to master the system and the routine necessarily connected therewith. This he can do by a careful examination of the best and most successful schools, or by a regular and thorough course of practice in a normal school. But back of all this there is a relation of far deeper significance, in which the two come face to face—where will meets will, and mind challenges mind, where soul speaks to soul, deep answering to deep; where, in fact, there comes to be a kind of spiritual coexistence, the force of which reaches beyond the hours of recitation and class discipline and becomes a life-long motive of good or evil. A relation of this character demands more time than a month or a year. Indeed, the whole power of it is thrown away by the frequent changes which now characterize the management of so many of our schools.

How shall these evils be remedied? How shall the teachers' tenure of office be made less precarious, and our schools be assured of the continuous service of good teachers for a series of years? How shall the teachers' calling reach up to a recognized profession, so that we may secure professional teachers whose inward culture of character and professional advancement are such as to give to their presence and personal influence a power more far-reaching than all merely common attainments of science can ever be?

So much is dependent upon public sentiment, and so much power is intrusted to the various district-school boards elected directly by the people, that we cannot expect any efficient or permanent reform until, by the continuous and concerted efforts of our best educators, the evils of our present system are fully unmasked, and the public mind and heart aroused to a sense of danger and impelled to make efforts towards escape therefrom.

Added to this, more rigid requirements must be demanded of those who wish to enter the profession. Our Superintendents and Commissioners must begin the work by enlarging the scope of their examinations, and by promptly refusing all candidates whose attainments are only ordinary, and whose special professional studies have not been thorough.

Our State normal schools must carry forward the work by adding largely to their directly professional training and practice, until they hold the same relation to the practice of teaching as law and medical schools do to the practice of law and medicine.

The compensation of teachers must be greatly enlarged. Here the difficulties are such as to demand special legislation to protect the teachers and guard against the possible ignorance and penuriousness of district-school directors. Schools are maintained by direct taxation in most of our States. This taxation is usually local—i. e., it is imposed by the school board itself, and also general—i. e., each district receives its share of the State appropriation which comes from the State treasury. To guard the teachers, a minimum salary should be fixed as a necessary condition of receiving the State appropriation.

How the present practice of hiring by the year may be avoided, so as to give some hope that the same teacher may hold his office for a series of years and not be subject to removal from year to year, is a difficult problem. It has been suggested that to county boards of education appointed by the central school authority of the State, the selection and retention of teachers in their respective fields of labor be intrusted. This radical change, which cannot be effected at once, may serve to point out the goal towards which we should move.

We must bear in mind, however, the necessity of the cordial co-operation of teacher and directors, and that such episcopal jurisdiction of a county board would require the greatest prudence or only make matters worse. In truth we can accomplish but little by legislation until we agitate and agitate, persistently keeping the subject before the people until the disease itself shall be so thoroughly diagnosticated and understood as to hurry the sufferer to some physician and remedy. Then the necessary legislation will be forthcoming.

In the meantime, we as educators must insist upon more rigid work upon the part of our examining Superintendents and Commissioners, and with one mind and heart build up and advance our normal schools, that from them may go forth teachers who know what the profession demands, and who are ready to meet the demands, however far these may reach, and form a professional body of men who shall give tone and direction to the whole educational work. Our normal schools must rank with our schools of law, and medicine, and divinity, and their diploma must be the sign and seal of professional attainments sufficient to warrant the holder to enter into the high dignity and responsibility of a profession which the State should honor and all the people gladly recognize.

E. E. HIGBEE, *Chairman.*

DISCUSSION OF MR. HIGBEE'S REPORT.

[REPORTED BY J. M. GREENWOOD.]

Mr. Hancock—I would suggest that the essayist designate the most important points in his paper to be discussed.

Mr. Higbee—The important point in the paper is the appointment of teachers.

Mr. Kiehle—Appointments should not be left to the discretion of County Superintendents, since these hold political positions, and they have enough to do to take care of themselves.

Mr. Higbee—Our system in Pennsylvania is different from that of other States.

Mr. White and Mr. Tappan wanted Mr. Dickinson to explain the "Tenure of Office Act" of Massachusetts, which he did as follows.

1. Teachers are generally retained.
2. Boards are more careful in selecting new teachers, since it is difficult to get rid of poor ones.
3. About fifty per cent. of the teachers in the public schools of Massachusetts are graduates of Normal schools.
4. More power is given to City Superintendents in selecting teachers, arranging courses of study, &c.

Mr. Hinsdale asked about the permanency of teachers in the country schools of Massachusetts.

Mr. Dickinson—A law was enacted twelve years ago, authorizing school committees to dismiss incompetent teachers.

Mr. Richards—Will some one answer whether those who enter the Normal schools agree to teach for a term of years or for life?

Mr. Dickinson—Students of the Normal schools agree to teach two years. Many teach during life.

Mr. Hancock—Does the Commonwealth of Massachusetts look, in the appointment of teachers, simply to the welfare of the schools? If that be true, then I want to go to Massachusetts after death.

Mr. Baldwin—In Texas and elsewhere, more than fifty per cent. of all graduates of Normal schools remain permanently in the profession. Half the graduates of law and medical schools never practice their profession.

Mr. Stevenson—Legislation would not help teachers to hold their positions. It is a difficult thing to get rid of incompetent teachers under any circumstances.

Mr. Hinsdale said he suspected that the discussion of the teachers' tenure of office in the country had been overdone; at least some phases of the subject. There is no question that much injury has been done through frequent changes of teachers; but we must remember that American life is a constant flux. The profession of medicine, and the law are also subject to great changes. Only twenty-five per cent. of those graduating from the medical colleges become doctors in a professional sense. In the country districts where there is most need of longer tenure, improvement must come through discussion and the better information of the public. Once more, the tenure question is almost always discussed from a single point of view. The discussion assumes that the only thing, at least the main thing to look at, is the permanence of the teacher's tenure. No solution of the problem can be satisfactory that does not also provide means for the retiring of inefficient teachers. In the cities the second question is the more important of the two.

Mr. Allyn—System is absolutely necessary in large cities. In country schools, the county superintendent ought to have greater authority than is, at present, conferred. It is possible only through good county supervision to elevate these schools.

Mr. Hancock - I agree with Mr. Hinsdale that the question of getting rid of poor teachers is a more important question practically than that of the tenure of office. But school authorities have now ample powers under law to dismiss such teachers. The trouble is that it is not exercised. The election of teachers for a short term presents the occasion for dropping them from the list which would, under a long tenure of office, not to be thought of. It will be vain to hope to build up a real profession of teaching under our present heterogeneous scheme of appointing teachers and continuing them in their profession. As it is now, teachers are not generally dropped for inefficiency, but for causes lying outside of their professional work. It may be, and sometimes is, because the teacher has manifested a high manliness and conscientiousness in the discharge of his duties, and has thus given offense to the appointing power. Around such manliness and conscientiousness I would erect the strong barrier of protection by law in the form of a long tenure of office.

Mr. White—A longer term of appointment would be the means of exercising greater care in the appointment of teachers; and teachers who have served long and faithfully ought to be retired and pensioned.

Mr. Fitzpatrick—Is there not danger in keeping children too long under one teacher? Will not the children copy the defects as well as the excellencies in a teacher's character? In this, there is great danger. It is also a fact that owing to our rapidly changing conditions in society, socially, we are not yet crystalized as are the communities in European countries. A life trade or profession here, where all progress must spring from the bottom upward, is not the normal status of our civilization. Men and women change readily from one pursuit to another, and until we have reached a certain point, individuals and classes can not be restricted to certain grooves. If an attempt is made to enforce theories before the people are ready for the change, reaction always follows. The schools are simply an exponent of the general intelligence of the community, and this intelligence is a growth.

Mr. Rickoff—The Board of Education should be the highest expression of what is best in the community which it represents.

Mr. Hancock in reply to a question by Mr. Tappan said: A distinction ought to be made between the mechanical part of school-work and the freedom granted to teachers to conduct their schools in a proper manner.

Mr. Tappan—Good teachers ought to be retained without an annual re-election, while beginners should be appointed, at first, "on trial."

Mr. Kiehle—I see a remedy in good, sharp, county supervision.

Mr. Folwell—We are expecting too much from organizations and systems. There is, perhaps, need of more "*laissez faire*" in education. Our existing systems are essentially socialistic in spirit. The time was, within the speaker's recollection, when a man could set up his own school and conduct it according to his own ideas. One of my own teachers owned his school-house and in it carried on Normal instruction long years before there were any Normal schools known to public systems. Under a system permitting free trade in education, there would be no question of tenure of office. Teachers would govern themselves just as other professional persons now do.

Mr. Rounds—Legislation would be useless, since, in many localities, the vacation is longer than the school session. Longer terms of school, and the school year beginning in the fall rather than in the spring, would be improvements.

Mr. Eaton—The time has fully come when deserving teachers, who have spent their lives in public service, should be pensioned.

Mr. Higbee—Objection has been made to entrusting any authority in the selection and appointment of teachers to County Superintendents, through fear of incompetency upon their part, growing out of their election under political influences. In Pennsylvania, the County Superintendent is under very careful legal limitations. He must have properly recognized credentials and three years of successful experience in teaching immediately preceding the time of his election. In addition, he cannot receive his commission from the State Superintendent until thirty days subsequent to his election, that time may be given for protests to be forwarded to the State Superintendent, who, when such protests are according to forms of law, must take the matter into consideration and enter upon regular trial, &c.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

POINTS FOR CONSTANT CONSIDERATION IN THE STATISTICS OF EDUCATION.

[Presented by John Eaton.]

1. Statistics of education are not to be regarded as of greater value than the end for which they are kept. We do not educate that we may keep statistics, but we gather statistics that we may know better how to educate.

2. Statistics of education cannot give completely that wonderful work in man. At best they must come short of the whole story of what education does, and its results. We should not expect from them what there is not in them.

3. We should neither overestimate them nor underestimate them, nor put them out of place in our plans or efforts. If a teacher may lay down his life for his pupils, he certainly should not, in a struggle simply to perfect his statistics. Better sacrifice the record of a school than the children in it.

4. Numerals are not the whole of statistics. There must be description or descriptive texts enough for their correct understanding and interpretation; graphics may add much to their value.

5. Whatever adaptation to local peculiarities with respect of what statistics include or exclude, the more they approach to a universal language the better. The progress of statistics towards the universal may foreshadow the international in law, commerce, and, generally, in intercourse among communities and nations and the possibilities of universal peace. How long has the measuring of social and civil forces been subordinated to the problems of war? How long have war statistics been to the front? Why has not the time come to bring to the front statistics tending to peace, of which the educational are the most central and significant of other conditions, showing the power of people in their individual or collective capacity in respect to all that pertains to human progress in every department? Is not this precisely what has been going on for these

fifty years? Compare educational statistics of to-day with those fifteen years old. The United States are in the way to lead in perfecting educational statistics. Are our institutions to be preserved? The knowledge of their value, the signs which point out the causes and prevention of peril, must be in possession of the people. Our affairs are not to be directed by a king or a class, but by a majority of all the people. Therefore the people, all the people, should be constantly studious of the vital interests which these statistics represent. Do farmers and seamen watch the storm signals? Every citizen should watch the signals of sociology. How stands the barometer of intelligence? Whither tend the currents? What are their velocity and force? No citizen should be ignorant or indifferent. He should not only see how his child, or neighborhood stands, what the details of these facts are in themselves, but how they compare with others and with the best standards. This would have some effect on the universal boasting that my class, my school, my college, my city, my State is the best,—which we have *ad nauseam.*

6. The aiming towards larger or more universal bearings of statistics in education need not, and should not, take from their local meaning or lessons; but should add to them by affording larger range of comparisons. Each school, each district, ward, town, parish, borough, or city or county, each seminary, academy, college, university, should keep its statistics so as to accord with all others of similar character in its State; and each State should so keep its records as to compare in certain important particulars with those of every other State in our Union; indeed, every nation may so keep its statistics that they may have some accord, some fair ground of comparison, with those of every other nation.

7. Statistics of education should be, in form and nomenclature, not only to be compared with themselves but with statistics representing other sociological conditions. They should not only show what the school attendance and the school work performed are in a given civil unit, district, ward, city, etc., but what the school population is; and at once furnish a safe basis of comparison, first as to illiteracy, second as to morals, crime, etc., third as to health, sickness, longevity, and so forth.

8. It should not be forgotten that statistics of education in the United States are not primarily authoritatively secured by the same agency; and in bringing them into comparison, all essential differences should be regarded. The nation has gathered certain facts

about education for a series of decades; each State, also, now has its statistics of education; moreover, certain municipalities report special items for their own benefit; besides, private institutions, whether chartered or not, have their own way of making the facts about themselves known. The National Bureau of Education, an agency for collecting and publishing statistics of education, has issued annually a report since 1870; all reports to it are voluntary. But it has sought to utilize all authoritative collections of educational data and to give to each statement or collection the actual value of the authority or source from which it was derived. The Bureau has drawn from the United States censuses, State censuses, city school reports and the authorized statements made by all classes of institutions. During the time of half a generation in which this work has gone forward systematically year by year, the points for constant consideration above enumerated have been kept in mind, and greater and greater approximation to them has been secured. Is it not time to revise what has already been accomplished and to take a step forward?

9. In working toward any ideal of statistics, it should be remembered how much is dependent upon legislation, and under what a variety of difficulties it must be accomplished in Congress, in the several States and Territories, and in numerous municipalities.

10. The great advantage of a national initiative is the last point that I wish to enumerate in this preliminary statement of the points for constant consideration in the statistics of education. If this Council can agree thus far, may it not be prepared to go forward at a future time in a specific enumeration of what educational statistics should include, and in what periods and in what manner they should be recorded, collected, and published?

JOHN EATON, *Chairman.*

DISCUSSION OF MR. EATON'S REPORT.

[REPORTED BY ELI T. TAPPAN.]

Mr. E. E. White—The national initiative proposed in the last point must be made by the National Bureau and this Council. The teachers of the country must look to this Bureau to bring about a common basis for statistics. We are coming more and more into uniformity under this lead. We should obtain such legislation in

States as will secure desired uniformity. No special authority is needed for this effort. Uniform legislation in States, guided by the National Bureau, will secure the end sought. This may also secure uniform use of terms for a proper interpretation of statistics. We must look for this to the leadership of the National Bureau. Mr. White asked the meaning of Mr. Eaton as to the collation of educational with other statistics.

Mr. Eaton, for illustration, referred to the work of Dr. Harris in the statistics of crime, and the difficulty of stating what education a criminal had obtained.

Mr. Pickard—I have little faith in legislation as a cure for the ambiguity in the terms used in statistics. The terminology now in use in all the large cities of the West is nearly uniform, a result brought about by the efforts and consultations of individual teachers. The influence of this action of cities extends beyond into State statistics, as in Iowa. This progress is brought about by conferences among leaders in educational work. The legislative changes follow. There is now, in many of these States, virtually an agreement.

Mr. Gove—Volunteer statistics are monstrously unreliable. City statistical reports are jammed full of tables whose conclusions cannot be made use of. We need a positive authority to put questions and demand answers, a power from above us, to get reliable statements of facts.

Mr. White—The basis of all school statistics must be a correct census of population. The fundamental defect is the absence of this knowledge. The United States decennial census brings its facts to us at too long intervals, and it is published with too long delay.

Mr. Pickard —I agree to that, but we must not rely upon a law to bring about the result. The law must be the result of the thought of intelligent leaders, the discussions of "the round table."

Mr. Higbee—We need a Minister of Education. A bureau at Washington is not enough.

Mr. Hoose—A difficulty arises from the fact that the distribution of school money rests on the enumeration of children of school age.

Mr. Eaton—The report aims to meet that difficulty.

Mr. Hancock—The personal equation of makers of statistics is to be allowed for as a difficulty to be known but which cannot be got rid of. Differences in requirements of reports to City and to State and to the Bureau of Education, all on different bases, present a difficulty that may be overcome by some uniform national rule.

Mr. Greenwood—Three kinds of statistics are required: 1st, Reports for the city. These should contain only what is absolutely necessary. 2d, The State statistics are various because they have to meet varying requirements. 3d, The statistics for the National Bureau must be more full than the others and contain more details. Averages do not present the whole truth. In the city schools we do not want so many statistics.

Mr. Eaton—In the last census report, the enumeration of youth by years is given. This was in consequence of earnest solicitation. This shows the importance of discussion here, and by teachers, to secure what is desired. We need to begin early, to act intelligently and unanimously.

Mr. Bicknell—We should move at this session for action. Another year may be too late for the next census.

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II.—ON CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Sub-topics: (1) Organization; (2) *Supervision* (1884); (3) Superintendency; (4) Qualification of Teachers; (5) *Classification of Pupils* (1886); (6) Ungraded Schools.

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Sub-topics: (1) Kind of Normal Schools Required; (2) *Academic and Professional Training* (1883); (3) *Practice Departments* (1885); (4) City Normal Schools; (5) *Teachers' Institutes* (1887); (6) Chairs of Didactics in Colleges.

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Delia L. Williams, Delaware, O.
Thomas Hunter, New York City.
F. A. Kirkpatrick, Leavenworth, Kan.
Robert Allyn, Carbondale, Ill.

VII.—ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) *Technical Training in Public Schools* (1881); (2) Preparation for Institutes of Technology; (3) *Pedagogical Value of School Workshop* (1886); (4) Professional Function of Polytechnic Schools; (5) Agricultural Schools; (6) Summer Schools of Science.

E. E. White, Cincinnati, O., *Chairman.*
G. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan.
J. M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
J. H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind.
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.

VIII.—ON PEDAGOGICS.

Sub-topics: (1) *Chairs of Pedagogy in Universities and Colleges* (1882); (2) *Pedagogy as a Science* (1884); (3) Pedagogical Inquiry; (4) *Function of Public School* (1886 and 1887); (5) Moral Education; (6) Pedagogical Terminology; (7) Pedagogical Literature.

F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo., *Chairman.*
J. H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.
G. Stanley Hall, Baltimore, Md.
W. T. Harris, Concord, Mass.
I. W. Andrews, Marietta, O.

IX.—ON EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

Sub-topics: (1) *Co-education* (1883); (2) Mixed Elementary and Secondary Schools; (3) Colleges for Women; (4) *Technical Training for Girls* (1886); (5) Professional Life for Women; (6) Training for Domestic Life.

Mary S. Cooper, Oswego, N. Y., *Chairman.*
A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
W. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Ia.
Merrick Lyon, Providence, R. I.
J. B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O.

X.—ON HYGIENE IN EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) *Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools* (1883); (2) *Recesses* (1884 and 1885); (3) Indoor Exercises; (4) Heating and Ventilation of School-houses; (5) Lighting of School-rooms; (6) *Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health* (1887 and referred back for report in 1889).

W. H. Payne, Ann Arbor, Mich., *Chairman.*
W. N. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind.
T. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
John Hancock, Chillicothe, O.
J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.

XI.—ON EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

Sub-topics: (1) *School Reports* (1885); (2) Books on Education; (3) Periodical Literature; (4) Use of Reference Libraries; (5) *Use of General Libraries* (1887); (6) Study of Literature in Schools.

C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H., *Chairman.*
N. C. Schæfer, Kutztown, Pa.
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.
A. J. Rickoff, New York City.
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

XII.—ON EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

Sub-topics: (1) *Reforms in Statistics* (1885 and 1887); (2) What Statistics should be collected; (3) Uniformity in Nomenclature; (4) International Comparisons; (5) Bureau of Statistics; (6) School Age—Can Uniformity be secured? (7) U. S. Census of Educational Statistics.

Aaron Gove, Denver, Col., *Chairman.*
John Eaton, Marietta, O.
L. S. Thompson, Lafayette, Ind.
D. N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
G. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.

CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCIL.

PREAMBLE.

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, through printed reports, of the substance of the discussions and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions ; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration; and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require from the chairmen of its committees the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion, whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of their committees. It shall invite the freest discussion of the reports of its committees, and, whenever said reports are not so amended as to embody the new suggestions developed by such discussion, any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, through its president, with the aid of the chairmen of the several committees, an annual report to the National Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the Association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the Association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number, committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I.—MEMBERSHIP.

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected out of the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of the Association, identified with educational work, is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election, such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members; four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years; and the Council shall elect eight members, five members for six years, two for four years, and one for two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five members and the Council five members, each member, with the exceptions hereinafter provided for (Section 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council, chosen at the first election, shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No State shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II.—FEES.

There shall be no fee for membership in the Council of Education, but each member of it shall secure a membership in the National Educational Association by becoming a life member of the same, or by paying to the treasurer of the Association the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. The regular meeting of the committees shall take place on the days provided for the annual meeting of the Council. Meetings of committees may be called at any time by the chairmen of the respective committees, but attendance at such special meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this Article.

ARTICLE IV.—COMMITTEES.

The general management of the affairs of the Council shall be vested in an Executive Committee, composed of the President, Vice-President, and Secretary of the Council, and four other members, all of whom are to be elected by the Council at its annual meeting. There shall be twelve standing committees, each consisting of five members. They shall be appointed by the Executive Committee, and be named as follows:—

1. Committee on State School Systems.
2. Committee on City School Systems.
3. Committee on Higher Education.
4. Committee on Secondary Education.
5. Committee on Elementary Education.
6. Committee on Normal Education.
7. Committee on Technological Education.
8. Committee on Pedagogics.
9. Committee on Education of Girls.
10. Committee on Hygiene in Education.
11. Committee on Educational Literature.
12. Committee on Educational Statistics.

ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF COMMITTEES.

The Committees of the Council shall consider the topics assigned to them, and report on the same; they may select for their deliberations such other questions belonging to their departments as they deem proper to discuss.

Whenever called upon, the Committees shall continue the deliberative work of the Association on topics assigned to them, or prepare questions to be submitted to that body.

ARTICLE VI.—DUTIES OF MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The members of the Council shall render active service and assistance in the work of the Committee to which they have been assigned, and further the general work of the Council as much as is in their power. They shall give their attention to the questions submitted to them, and communicate their conclusions in writing to the Chairman of the Committee.

ARTICLE VII.—DUTIES OF THE CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES.

The Chairman of each Committee shall communicate the questions which are to be discussed to each of the members of his Committee, and send them such other communications as may assist them in their work. He shall arrange a suitable plan for an exchange of opinion, and embody the conclusions arrived at in a brief report. He shall, from time to time, inform the Secretary of the Council of the progress made by his Committee. He shall, with the consent of the other members of his Committee, arrange special meetings at a convenient time and place. He shall see that the communications, sent in turn to each member of his Committee, are promptly forwarded. He shall state distinctly (in the form of questions, when feasible) the topics on which he desires to have a brief expression of opinion from the members of his Committee, and embody the substance of their answers in his report.

ARTICLE VIII.—THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEES.

The work of the Committees of the Council shall be carried on in the regular meetings provided for above, and in such special meetings as can be arranged from time to time, according to the pleasure of the Committee, and principally, in writing, by an exchange of briefly expressed opinions. It shall be the duty of each Chairman to devise a plan for the latter. Each member may be required to report on a part of the subject; or the whole topic may be submitted to each member, together with the opinion of the other members that have considered the topic before.

ARTICLE IX.—DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL.

It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general. The Council shall assign work to each Committee, and receive a report on the same; it shall caused to be published such reports of Committees, or parts of the same, as in its judgment should be brought to general notice; it shall present, through the President of the Council, an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE X.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended, at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived, at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

By-Laws, not in violation of this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

BY-LAWS.

1. Each active member of the Council shall pay annually three dollars, to defray the expenses of the Council.
2. The Secretary shall act as Treasurer of the Council.

PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

Kindergarten and Elementary

DEPARTMENTS.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

FARWELL HALL, CHICAGO, ILL., July 14.

The department was called to order at two o'clock, P. M., President W. N. Hailmann in the chair.

In the absence of the regular secretary, Miss Alpha O. Smith, of Iowa, was appointed secretary *pro tem.*

The president then delivered the annual address.

Miss Clara A. Burr, of Oswego, N. Y., then read a paper on "The Value of Kindergarten Training in Normal Schools."

Miss Kate L. Brown, of Boston, followed with a paper on "The Application of Frœbel's Educational Principles in Primary Schools."

In the discussion of these papers, the following took part: Mr. Bothwell, of Albany, Miss Curtis, of Kansas City, Miss Dickey, of Utah, and others.

It was moved and carried that a committee of five be appointed by the Chair, to nominate officers for the coming year.

The president appointed the following as such committee: Mr. Bothwell, of New York, Mr. Hitz, of Washington, D. C., Miss Fanny Schroedler, of Illinois, Miss Emma Maxwell, of California, and Miss Kate L. Brown, of Massachusetts.

The department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

The department met in the same place, on Friday, July 15th, and was called to order at two o'clock, P. M., the president in the chair.

Miss Eleanor Beebe, of Louisville, Kentucky, read a paper on "The Kindergarten in the Education of the Blind."

Discussion followed, participated in by Mrs. Little, of Wisconsin, Mr. B. B. Huntoon, of Kentucky, and the president.

Mr. John Hitz reported for the committee on nominations of officers, as follows:

For President—Mrs. Eudora Hailmann, of Laporte, Indiana.

For Secretary—Miss Alpha O. Smith, of Marshalltown, Iowa.

For Vice President—Miss Eva B. Whitmore, of Chicago, Illinois.

These nominations were confirmed, and the department then adjourned, *sine die.*

ALPHA O. SMITH, Secretary *pro tem.*

*OPENING ADDRESS.**

W. N. HAILMANN, PH.D., SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LA PORTE, INDIANA.

This is the last time I shall have the honor of addressing you from the chair. Under these circumstances, it may be well for me to reiterate a few points which I have from time to time brought before you.

It was stated here yesterday—has been stated at all our sessions—that the kindergarten has enemies. I have looked for years for these enemies among outsiders, but in vain. If there are any such enemies, I can only infer that they must be inside. Outsiders judge the kindergarten by observation and experience. What wonder if they sometimes find fault! But finding fault does not constitute hostility.

If kindergarten children do not fit the primary schools, it may be that the primary schools are at fault, or it may be that the kindergarten is at fault. Shall we call those enemies who direct our attention to our possible blunders, and who do this in the interest of the children?

Of course the kindergarten system must not be judged by any one kindergarten. Each kindergarten is but an approach to the ideal. There are good kindergartens and bad kindergartens, just as there are good schools and bad schools—we do not conclude from this that school systems are a failure. There are good hotels and bad hotels, good churches and bad ones, good men and bad men. Because one man is bad, we do not turn against all manhood. This would be superficial judgment.

Permit me to direct your attention to a few reliable criteria, however. In the first place, a good kindergarten in all its work is preeminently religious and ethical. Work in the kindergarten from beginning to end has reference to the religious promise in the growth of the child.

Again at every point of the work the teacher must act in full sympathy with the child, must place himself on the child's plane, and from this labor toward the child's (the human) ideal. If the kindergartner sees in the gifts and occupations ends instead of means of instruction, if she makes weaving, building, or folding, matters of instruction, and subordinates the child to these,—she has not the spirit of Frœbel.

It was said yesterday that we must go down to the child. I would say, go up to the child; lift yourself if you can to his level of innocence, of singleness of purpose, of pure and simple enjoyment of all things; follow the child, be led by him; carefully and thoughtfully seek to know the di-

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*Reported by the secretary *pro tem.*

rection in which he drifts,—then help him in his upward tendencies, and guard him against all that looks downward.

Again, the kindergarten is essentially ethical. All its work must build up character,—benevolence, justice, righteousness, in every sense of the word. For this purpose its surroundings are adjusted. "Then," say some of the critics, "you do not propose that children shall know anything?" Know! We want them to know vastly more than they know now; their knowledge shall not be merely verbal, but practical, entering the pupil's very life.

If the kindergarten has any quarrel with the school—though I cannot see that it has,—it is not that the school teaches too much, but that it fails to put into the learner's life the knowledge it does teach.

We have been accused of being theoretical and visionary, but it will be found that the school is eminently practical. It says, "Go to life, to nature; come in contact with things, gather experience, make experiments; think and do; whatever you learn, use." Is this theoretical and visionary, or should not those terms be rather applied to the bookish school of grammarians, of the ready-made sciences?

Frœbel does not condemn science, but uses it. He would lead the learner to use all his knowledge for the glory of God and the good of mankind. He seeks unity in all things. Matter and force, body and mind, the spiritual and physical, work hand in hand. Thus, too, there is to him no antagonism between science and religion, between light and love. The one seeks the Most High from without, the other seeks for him from within. In everything Frœbel seeks unity, an inner and an outer harmony, training the lower for the sake of the higher possibilities, and all for the highest ideal.

I was asked in the council, "But, if a child has a good memory, would you go at something else and not develop that?" I would develop that to its legitimate outcome, turning the memory into the intellect, into insight, into conduct. If we stifle memory before it reaches conduct, we stifle the child's soul.

Are not men's principles at variance with their conduct? This should not be so; man should be in harmony with himself in all his life utterances. So, too, he should be in harmony with mankind, with nature, with God,—obeying their laws, limiting himself by the righteousness that binds him to these.

A few words of warning to the kindergartner may not come amiss. She is exposed to many dangers, and among them one of the most serious is self-adulation. She is not a better teacher because she professes Frœbel, and can handle the gifts. There must be within her the living spirit of growth. I have seen better kindergartners in district schools where the name of Frœbel had never been heard, than in many kindergartens which boasted of costliest outfits, and were labeled with Frœbel all over.

The child, not the first or third gift, is to be developed. I have seen children worried time and again for laying a stick in a way not in the books, although his way was much better. There is still too much schoolishness in our kindergarten, time tables, sequences, laws of opposites, logical development, and the like. They are beautiful in adult science, but only hinder child growth.

Again, many yield to the objection that the kindergarten makes work too pleasant to the child. And is there harm in this? Did Hercules gain his great physical power through physical worry? Was Siegfried worried into his superiority? Or was not his life one round of vigorous, cheerful, pleasant activity? And with us, does strength ever come from worry?

Is it probable that a child will work less for being cheerful? Why, if worry is the only price of work, then is work the activity of the slave, and play the activity of the free man. Shall your child be a slave? Children and gods play; in play man is most like God. Let the child play himself into harmonious, cheerful, beneficent, fully developed manhood and womanhood, and work, true work, godlike, creative will be his heaven, his greatest joy.

One word more and I am done. Permit me to warn you against mere culture for its own sake; against culture that does not tend to action; against culture that admires itself for wasting life over the inane intricacies of a Browning, or that hovers over its treasures of learning or its art-love, in a miserly inactivity. The kindergarten wants culture, it is true, social culture, human culture, divine culture, but all of them in streams that lead outward and upward into truly beneficent, active lives.

THE VALUE OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

MRS. CLARA A. BURR, OSWEGO, N. Y.

The question to be answered by the State normal and training school is How in the prescribed time can the student be trained to such an appreciation of educational principles as will enable him to apply his knowledge to the education of others?

The attempt to answer this question has led to an endless chain of devices, each link of which possesses an identity of its own, because forged from the necessities of the special school. The chain binds together the entire system of State training schools, by the strong purpose to do honest work. A question of interest to one becomes the interest of all, therefore the first step in consideration of the question, how to secure higher professional training for teachers, is one of general interest.

Each training school has its standard of excellence and its special measures for attaining the end in view. Where can one be found, however, that does not admit, by its course of action, the fact that its work cannot be tested, until the student attempts to teach what he has learned? The management of the crude material, which is admitted to the State normal and training schools, causes difficulties that are unknown in the city training school; but the very fact of pupils of the city schools having been trained in a uniform high school system brings difficulties that are unknown to the State school. But in both city and State institutions the practice department alone reveals the defective training. This test will expose crude scholarship of State pupils, if it exists, and the mechanical teaching of those pupils who have been trained in large classes according to the public school system.

Perhaps in no department of the training school is it possible to do the young teacher such irrevocable harm as in the practice school. The difficulty of putting the mind in a twofold relation to the subject and the child to be taught is of such magnitude that it involves the whole art of teaching, and special attention should be directed to this point before the student begins to do practical work. Every department teacher in the training school should elucidate the principles of his subject, with the idea of having the pupil place himself in the relation of student and teacher. When this habit has been acquired in the ordinary recitation room, he is ready to attempt the experiment of placing his mind in relation to that of a child and to the subject which he is to teach.

Whatever the influence brought to bear upon the practice teacher, his first motive will be that of meeting the requirements of the supervising teacher, for he seldom feels free enough to think of the needs of the child, and never, in the beginning, has any appreciation of how to meet them. His failure to consider the individuality of the child is but the consequence of his own want of training and his inability to know himself. If it is true, as asserted, that the American public school system is a machine, then should the training schools root out the tendency to mechanical work by training students as men and women should be trained, up to the full measure of their capacity to understand the human mind. To do this the student must be placed under such conditions that he can readily appreciate what he must be in order to do.

The practice department does not afford opportunity for studying child life, because of the restrictions necessarily imposed. The teacher in charge of this department must pay tribute to the State, the city, to parents, to pupil teachers, and to the children. What wonder if her own sense of justice is dishonored, in her effort to pay the hundred weight of flesh demanded!

Since the practice school, which applies the final test, does not afford facilities to the pupil in training for a study of child nature, he must receive a diploma entitling him to teach, when the most important part of this work is yet unlearned. He must of necessity take it up without intelligence sufficient to guide him in preserving the child's individuality; hence his teaching is mechanical, and his school must be a machine where the child is not developed to the best advantage.

Nowhere can the opportunity be found for studying real children, excepting in the true kindergarten. The word "true" has significance in the fact that the American people in accepting the kindergarten must discriminate between the real and the imitation. Between the sunset upon Ontario's pulsating waters and the representation of the scene upon canvas, there is a mighty difference. One is felt, the other is studied.

A true kindergarten is, then, indispensable in the training of teachers for the public school; and the pupil teacher should come directly under its influence and should, therefore, work in the practice school under the direction of the kindergartner. In order to direct this work the kindergartner should be a training teacher, with experience in public school work and its difficulties, and with a thorough knowledge of the normal course pursued by the pupil teacher. She should understand the application of Pestalozzian principles and be an expert in applying those of Frœbel. A comparison between the ideas of these two reformers will reveal the characteristic differences which should be illustrated abundantly through the children of the kindergarten. During this illustrative work the pupil teacher, as an observer, should notice what the child does, should discover the motive and draw an inference as to what this indicates, and determine what use this knowledge is to be to the teacher Since each normal and training school should be conducted according to its particular conditions, although the general plan of work may accord with that of every other State training school, so the kindergarten of each of these training schools should have an individuality. Games and occupations should bear the impress of originality, which necessarily follows ideal work, and is the only kind of teaching that should be observed by the pupil teacher. The stereotyped work, so commonly found in books and the imitation kindergarten, is most pernicious in its influence upon the teacher, the child, and the school at large. The object of studying the child in his natural environment is to learn the law that regulates his development, and the kindergartner must free herself from all trammels, in order to illustrate this law and to lead the child to that degree of development of which he is capable. Pupil teachers, as well as kindergartners, should be trained to an appreciation of the philosophy of Frœbel's system. There is not too much sentiment, but kindergartners often unconsciously fortify themselves behind a bulwark of false sentiment, and show a lamentable want of philosophy in their work. Unless kindergartners can be trained to a broad, deep conception of educational principles, and to recognize the fact that the kindergarten system is but the underpinning of the great educational structure, there can be no hope of having this system made a part of the public school. If this is not done, the kindergarten cannot be an educational factor. The State normal and training school, the fountain head, does and should refuse to recognize training work in the kindergarten, that is not put upon a basis that must command the respect of educators. Since the failure of young teachers is from want of power to apply their knowledge to the unknown mind of the child, then they must know the mind of the child, and since the only place where this knowledge can be gained is in the kindergarten, and since training schools demand philosophical work, here the conclusion is reached that through philosophical work in the kindergarten the training of teachers and the public school system is to be elevated. To train kindergartners and primary teachers to work in sympathy, and at the same time to keep the two lines of training distinct and, yet related, both kindergartners and primary teachers, and the schools wherein they practice should be under the direction of the kindergarten training teacher. The course of study in the primary, junior, and senior grades should be related to that of the kindergarten, because all should be evolved from nature.

The law of relation, which gives to the kindergarten its spirituality, is even more advantageously applied in higher grades, and is the key that unlocks the secret of making work play and play work. Frœbel's gifts reveal this law so plainly that it seems almost tangible, and primary teachers readily appreciate its value when studied thus, and soon learn to recognize it in their teaching, and through its application grow to a knowledge of the child.

The occupations of the kindergarten are unnecessarily stereotyped, yet as they now stand, they form a basis for any branch of industrial education that may be undertaken ; and the primary teacher should understand this course, that she may be prepared to receive kindergarten children, and that she may the more readily execute the industrial work entrusted to her grade.

The efforts to relate the kindergarten to the public school through lectures and disconnected work has proved hurtful rather than helpful. Pupil teachers receive about enough instruction to lead to a depreciation of the work of the kindergarten, and are ready to accept positions to teach as kindergartners or primary teachers, guided in their choice by the matter of salary, when their training and qualifications have fitted them for but one.

The admission of pupils to the regular kindergarten training class, who have not had normal training, is often advisable. They should, however, be sent to recitations in departments of the normal school that may have bearing upon the kindergarten, and give to it depth and scope. The standard of admission to the kindergarten training course should be higher than that commonly recognized, and more should be demanded of graduates than the completion of a course of manual training, familiarity with games many of which cannot stand an educational test, and sequences with gifts.

The faith exhibited by educators in their repeated efforts to sound the depths of Frœbel's philosophy, and its bearing upon education, only proves that it will yet be established throughout America. The failure to make the kindergarten as yet scarcely more than a preventive criminal measure is due largely to the failure of the State to make this department of training a feature of the normal and training school.

The State has not recognized the value of the kindergarten in training primary teachers, because time and favorable conditions have been wanting for proof of its worth. But the day dawns when wise legislation will secure the needed appropriation to put the ordinary primary teacher in possession of kindergarten principles, and to send out kindergartners who will work in sympathy with the public school system. Time alone can and will prove what can be accomplished through the mission of the true kindergarten in the training of teachers in the State normal and training schools of our country.

APPLICATION OF FRŒBEL'S PRINCIPLES TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

MISS KATE L. BROWN, BOSTON, MASS.

We do not speak to you, dear friends, as an authority. It has not been our privilege to engage in the developing work of the kindergarten.

From the public schools we come to you and give our mite of observation; for the most obscure of the schools may be a watch tower, where the earnest teacher scans the horizon for the signs of both present and coming times.

We believe that these watch towers dot the land; that thousands of longing hearts await the dawning of that new day, when love and power shall work their sweet miracles hand in hand; when intuition as well as absolute knowledge shall be a recognized authority.

We are all looking for the light; and yet, in it all how little we know one another. That universal striving does not seem to us universal. We regard it as our ideal, our longing, not recognizing that on every side, other hearts throb with the same energy.

We need to feel, first of all, the absolute necessity of the kindergartners and teachers drawing nearer together, and cultivating mutual knowledge and sympathy. There has not been, and is not even now, any vital and sympathetic union between these two stages of early education. Both the kindergartners and teachers have regarded their work as a separate, isolated thing. Each must do his work independent of the other, with scant reference as to any possible connection that may be between them. "The kindergarten is not a school, it has none of the school aims, it can have nothing to do with the school," has been the cry from some on the one side. By the primary teachers on the other hand, the kindergarten has either been ignored, or regarded with suspicion, some maintaining that its influence is detrimental to good work in the schools. All these objections are groundless, and show only misapprehension of the relations of things.

The kindergarten as a separate, isolated fact, will never be more than a pallid little blossom, that scarce knows whether to live or die. Taken in its proper connection and relations with school life, it is destined to become a beautiful flower, whose rich beauty is prophetic of even future bloom.

The deepest value of kindergarten training is not always apparent in the kindergarten itself, but further on in school life, when the well trained reason and judgment act in conjunction, with every developed perception on the alert, with an imagination at once richly dowered and sensitive. The kindergarten apart from the school is like the heart or brain separated from the body. The school apart from the kindergarten is a torso, a body shorn of its most impressive features. "Therefore, let not the hand say to the foot, I have no need of thee."

Let the teacher strive to find out the principles that underlie the occupations and plays of the kindergarten. She will find them the beacon lights by which her bark must be steered.

Let the kindergartner cease to regard her fraternity as having alone attained unto and applied these principles. She may find in many primary schools, that which would have delighted the heart of Frœbel himself.

Among the number of educational reformers, there towers the figure of an old man. A simple figure—modest, unselfish, and singularly free from a morbid self-consciousness. He studied life and human nature; and, somehow, from out the confusions and contentions of clamoring systems, it dawned upon him, that here in the human life itself had God written his law. Going beyond the systems of man, he approached the fountain head of God's revelation to man—the unfolding nature of the child. By earnestly and lovingly studying this nature, he traced the workings of that heavenly law.

Like the sun's burst upon the clouded earth came this revelation to him, and how buoyantly joyous was henceforth his work! Having discovered for himself universal laws, the next step was to formulate them, and to select from existing systems and from many of the occupations of life those special exercises of mind and body that should develop in their correct order the powers of the child. The kindergarten has been the practical outcome of this labor.

But did Frœbel claim to be anything but a most untiring seeker after truth? Did he seek for himself the notoriety of having been the sole discoverer of universal law? Was he not a learner among learners?

Were he here now, we think he would tell us, "God's thought and purpose for the child is not a hidden one. It is written in letters of fire upon the face of all nature and life. Come, let us live *with* our children, and in their unfolding life learn how the Father works with his children."

But the most beautiful and helpful part of it all is, that the *principles* underlying this early development are the principles upon which all true education depends, in whatever stage of its progress. The mother holding her babe in her arms, the kindergartner entering with life and soul into the plays of her merry flock, primary and grammar school teachers, high school principals, and college professors, each and all share in the same grand truths. It may not be acknowledged by them, yet it is true. In all your isolation, solitary ones, you are bound together by the most deathless ties.

In this work there is neither high nor low, for each is but a part of one great whole. The farther we advance, the more are we indebted to those who have wrought before us. We are simply building upon their broad foundation.

We see the first workings of these principles in the nursery life of a well ordered home. The mother watches her child, delights in its opening intelligence; and through the love of her wisdom and the wisdom of her love, she furnishes the occasions for this natural development. Her one concern is, "What is God's thought for this little being? How does he work with it? Only let me find out that, and I will gladly join hands with him all the days of my life."

We see this same divine energy as it were in the kindergarten, where the child has his first contact with the world and society; where he becomes conscious of his wider relations. The primary school marks but another phase in the development of this spirit, and the good work does not stop here. Wherever we may be placed, we hold the same things in our hands. The humblest kindergartner, the most obscure teacher, may feel that her work is just as important to the great whole as the professor's from his learned chair, as the college president's from his responsible position. Should this not make us feel more at one?

We go into the kindergartens and see the white-souled, loving women, like careful gardeners tending their young plants. In the schools we see scores of noble, clear-eyed teachers, impressing as it were the stamp of their pure and ardent living upon the careless children about them. We see the kindergartners solving some of the most vexed questions of poverty and crime, by their wise ministration of charity. We find many and many a teacher bearing the discomforts of crowded rooms and a worse than crowded curriculum, with a cheery faith that should shame the easy going critics, who believe their appointed mission to be the picking to pieces of our public schools.

Therefore, we would say, with all the earnestness we can summon, "Let this gulf be filled." As you value the mission God has set upon you, as you care more passionately for the coming of his kingdom than your own petty interests, break down all these barriers of misconception, of suspicion, of coldness, and let us see eye to eye, and know each other as we really are.

How may the principles of Frœbel be applied to primary school work? This question naturally divides itself into two leading topics:

First. How shall the child be transferred from the kindergarten to the primary school, without any change of the developing principles there wisely inaugurated?

Second. How shall the primary teacher treat the child who has never enjoyed the perceptive training of the kindergarten?

It is true that some children sustain more or less injury in passing from a genuine kindergarten to some primary schools.

It is a similar experience to that of the young child fresh from an active, sunny home life, upon entering the school. This fact has been deeply felt by the kindergartners, and in many kindergartens there exist what are commonly termed "linking classes" designed to properly and gradually introduce the child into school life. This is a wise provision, as things are now. But if the kindergarten and primary school are but two phases of the same spirit, the passage from the one to the other should be made natural and harmonious.

The primary school should continue and apply, under new forms perhaps the principles of the kindergarten, at the same time adding its own peculiar features in due season. And let us state here, that this can never be done without mutual concession. And yet, what a cry of dismay has risen whenever this idea of concession has been touched upon.

Now, we do not mean to say that the kindergarten as formulated by Frœbel and developed by his disciples is to be so essentially changed as to become in any sense a new thing. Neither is the primary school to lose its characteristic features. But some modification must surely be made in both these departments of our school system.

The kindergartners must extend their vision onward toward that chilly little height of scholastic eminence, where the primary school has planted itself like some juvenile academy. But the spirit of the primary teacher must meet the kindergartner more than half way. The teacher must descend from her height to the sunny plains of childhood, and there amid its birds and flowers, its laughter and song, she will find a fellow-worker, and these two forces must heartily unite their interests and sympathies.

In the kindergarten there is the outpouring of a spontaneous life. The senses and perceptions have sway and their activity is constantly excited.

In the primary school the memory, reason, and judgment are supposed to be specially cultivated. There are many primary schools where the training of the perceptions is largely ignored, where the imagination is neglected. Can the child pass from the kindergarten to such a school without positive detriment to his better culture?

Why cannot the kindergartner in her work begin the cultivation of those powers which the primary school is supposed to represent? It will only be taking a short step farther than her prescribed limit. And if there be an arbitrary limit, does it not prevent in spirit at least that vital union which we urge as absolutely essential to the securing of the best results?

We do not recommend the turning of the kindergarten into a semi-primary school. But we do hold that the kindergartner should be thoroughly versed in pedagogic principles and methods, in the special application of foundation principles beyond her own circle, and that she should begin to prepare her charge for coming changes.

Just what this preparation should be in detail will become evident to the kindergartner who has this look ahead. For illustration: The kindergarten is preeminently designed for the development of the first powers of the child that unfold under natural and kindly conditions. It is the plowing of the ground, the enrichment of the soil. In its exercises the perceptions are mainly cultivated. The school should continue this work, and in addition apply itself to the powers of memory, reason, judgment. In the kindergarten the child is led to control himself unconsciously, in the school more consciously. It is true that too much of the arbitrary element has entered into our elementary schools, and in the kindergarten possibly hardly enough.

In our schools there should be more of that wise winning, by which a child is led to do the right cheerfully and willingly. Still, even in the kindergarten the little ones should feel the power behind the throne.

We believe that children have an intense respect for law and order however careless they may be themselves. It is right, it is imperative that a child shall feel himself obliged to do certain things, and refrain from doing others, because it is a required or expected thing. And if the kindergartner or teacher be as firm as she is winning, the children will not chafe under her little restrictions.

There should be times in the kindergarten when the children are required to remain quiet for a time, while in some position not irksome. If such little devices are not employed, how else can the child become accustomed to the long sittings in the primary schools?

Do not some kindergartners err from an excess of patience? We have more than once seen the kindergartner stand over a naughty child for half an hour, striving to win him to do a thing; whereas, a wise mother would have settled the matter in about thirty seconds, by insisting upon prompt obedience both as duty and privilege. We believe most heartily in that wise direction of the will that secures a voluntary obedience from the child. Personal issues are to be avoided in the school and kindergarten as well as the home.

Still the child must realize that obedience is not always to be a choice with him; that he owes it to others who have a right to expect that unquestioning, cheerful service. Some of our most loyal kindergartners have maintained that we do violence to the child's nature by insisting. Yet how shall he escape this great burden laid upon him by nature and life? The human being is hedged about with inexorable laws, in whose supreme tenderness lies their very unswervingness.

And the truest, manliest part is always the prompt and cheerful obedience consciously rendered to those sources to which we as conscious, thinking beings owe allegiance. Children respect infinitely those people who control them firmly as well as tenderly. They secretly scorn those who allow the slighter, more freakish nature to dally with rightful authority.

So we would say to the kindergartner—train the will, teach a reverence for authority. "Liberty under law" should be your motto. We have spoken of a moral issue which, if met, will help solve the question under discussion. There are questions of the intellect that have a place here. The work of the kindergartner is chiefly development; that of the school is to continue this process, and apply and formulate what has been developed.

"Never ask your children what they remember," say the kindergartners. Why not? Does not the memory in some degree awaken with the perceptive faculties? The child has examined and played with the cube many times. His attention has been called to its distinguishing characteristics of faces, edges, corners. Suppose the kindergartner says to her pupils, "You remember our little friend, the cube. You have seen him so many times that you know just how he looks. I wonder if you can tell me anything about him?" Will not the children delight in describing the form, each adding his mite of information concerning faces, edges, corners, right angles, etc.? If the kindergartner has clearly in mind what should be the legitimate result of all this knowledge, she may, by skilful questioning, lead her pupils to that invaluable habit of applying and using that which has come to them through observation and experiment.

We have heard both primary teachers and kindergartners say, "We never ask our pupils for reasons." Again we inquire, Why not? Do not the reasoning powers also awaken very early, and do they not demand some recognition even in the kindergarten?

"This is just six inches long," said a little five-year-old one day in the kindergarten, holding up a red stick. "How do you know?" we inquired. Quick as a flash the stick went down on the table against the black lines that ruled it off in inch squares. "Why, don't you see? Here are six inches on the table, and the stick just fits," was the triumphant reply.

Let the kindergartner go on dealing with sensations and perceptions, but at the same time work toward the memory, reason, and judgment. By working carefully, balancing wisely, she does more than develop the child, she assists in the solution of this most important problem.

But the primary teacher has her part. In receiving children from the kindergarten she must not ignore their past training. She must continue that development, leading the children gradually into the conditions and workings of her own department. There are kindergartners and primary teachers who work together in this sympathetic union. In many of the free kindergartens this problem of the relations to and union with the public schools has been earnestly considered. Even now the fruits of this well doing are not wanting.

How shall we deal with the child who enters school without previous training? Does he always come to us, every power of mind and heart on the alert, ready to respond to our leading? Does nature alone and unaided give him this opening and unfolding of the faculties, so imperative if one is to be broadly educated?

To one fact all observing teachers will bear witness. It is the blindness, the obtuseness, the passive acquiescence of the majority of children, even many who come from cultivated homes. They have eyes, but they see not; ears have they, but they hear not; they have hands, that either lie idle or engage themselves in destruction. Their curiosity never having been directed, resolves itself into mere mischievousness.

We must take this semi-developed being, and in some sense supply this lack of an earlier, and what would have proved in its time, more valuable training. And we must do this in order that our own teaching may prove effective. The primary school has not always felt itself called upon to supply these lacks. In consequence, results have been partial, unsatisfactory, entailing weaknesses that have been felt in the higher grades.

Our work presupposes a certain development, but that development has not been a fact—yet we go on presenting truths to minds not prepared to receive them, to the blinded eyes that see not. And we are eating out our own hearts because of the failures that are the inevitable lot of these poor little ones. It is a clear case of the making of bricks without straw.

Such experiences have not been in vain. It has dawned upon us that we must begin at the beginning. What progressive teacher will not rejoice when her work shall be preceded by a judicious kindergarten training? But that day is still in the future. One fact, however, is patent: The primary teacher should understand the kindergarten, and, if possible, receive the training. In no other way can she see the relations between the two, and what principles are common to both. To apply Frœbel's principles to her own work, there must be a change in its ostensible aims.

The parents are looking mainly for utilitarian results; the number of books read through, the amount of arithmetic compassed, the products of pen and pencil. In the teacher's mind these things, however admirable and necessary, must not be considered finalities. All this may be done with very little training of the child's faculties.

The true test of a child's training is in other directions. How thoroughly is he alive? Does he *use* his faculties? Does he delight in investigation? Is he full of resources—an intelligent talker, an agreeable companion? Is he manly, courageous, upright, pure, and refined in thoughts, language, actions? Is he kind to his mates and dumb animals, respectful to his elders, regarding rightful authority? Is he personally tidy, tasteful, polite, and thoughtful?

It is to the formation of character that the primary teacher must address herself, and to correct habits, both moral, mental and physical. Let us make as good readers, writers, and reckoners as knowledge, skill. and patience will admit, but never let us remain satisfied with what is still only secondary. With this new aim firmly established, it will become evident to the community that the schools and a school system exist simply and solely for the benefit of the children, not the children for the school. It will then be impossible to crowd and cram children for the sake of that grim and relentless idol, yearly promotion. In that day, the developing of a child's mind will seem of more moment than the crowding into and the extracting of facts from the mind.

When this change of base is established, at least in the teacher's consciousness, there is hope that the principles of Frœbel may be applied to our primary schools. If the teacher be thoroughly alive to her opportunity, the matter will rest largely in her own hands.

We know of no individual more deferred to, more influential with parents, than the genial, magnetic, tactful teacher, who besides being an expert in her own domain is versed in life itself, in the larger, truer sense. Such an one is listened to whether she speaks openly, or through her work. As long as teachers yield to unjust demands they will suffer them. Let them then take as it were their lives in their hands, and, if needs be, stand alone against the popular clamor. The world grasps at the husks, mistaking show for substance. But the life of man cries out for living bread. See well, that we give no stones.

This new aim, this change of base is simply the embodiment of Frœbel's spirit regarding the child's unfolding nature as God's true object lesson in life. Man is God's co-laborer when he will read this lesson aright and join hands with the Father in this holy work.

We will grant that the teacher is conscious of this aim and determined to carry it out, what then is the next step? We believe that much of her success will depend upon the atmosphere of her school room. And it is here that we would pay our tribute of admiration and gratitude, to the sweet and inspiring atmosphere of the kindergarten.

We cannot speak too highly of the love, the patience, the radiant cheer, the steady self-control, that to our mind have become connected with the very name of kindergartner. True, wise love can never hurt any human being, and the motherly affection of kindergartner or teacher is much better employed going out towards the little ones, than hived up in a doubting heart.

Let the atmosphere of the school then be homelike, free, affectionate. Never be afraid of showing your children in countless tender ways how much you love them.

The atmosphere must also be a busy one. Develop in your pupils the real love of and a genius for work. Teach them what an untold luxury good hard work is. You may rouse in them a perfect enthusiasm for doing. In short, make your school a live one, let its atmosphere be that of joyful striving. Make every child feel that you reverence his honest thought and effort, but that you have no sympathy with dishonesty of purpose, half-heartedness, or laziness. "My dear friend," writes the mother of four children to their teacher, "will you not ask my boys to come home immediately after school? A word from you will be sufficient." What a tribute to that teacher's influence, but how shall we regard the mother's failure?

We have now a teacher fired by the true ideal, and a band of children who love their teacher and work with freedom and enthusiasm, in a school whose atmosphere is cheer and inspiration. Is this sufficient? The teacher must know thoroughly the human mind, its powers, the order of their development, and whatever excites their activity. Then she must resolutely plan and carry out her work on the line of this natural development. She must never forget that her business as well as the kindergartner's is development. She must be too wise to fret and worry over the question of results, knowing that if she attends carefully to the power she is cultivating, the best results will follow. Two aims must be ever before her. 1. To awaken ideas. 2. To lead the child to express these ideas in various ways.

The pupil must have a constant association with objects, and by his own investigation (guided of course by the teacher) he will gain ideas of form, color, size, number. By closer experiment the qualities of objects, such as heat, cold, roughness, polish, sweetness, sourness, and the like will be gained.

In the dealing with the various gifts of the kindergarten, the colored balls represent separate ideas to the child. The sphere, cylinder, and cube suggest the ideas of opposites, or contrasts. He is delighted to find in life about him forms based upon these three types. The divided cubes suggest the idea of taking a part to combine again in new forms. Thus the first two series of gifts follow the first aim mentioned, that is, the awakening of ideas. The rest of the gifts and occupations embody the second aim, that is, the original expression of the child's ideas. There is not an exercise in primary school work that may not be made to embody these two aims.

Lead your children then to an acquaintance with objects—in form, color, size, number, and other qualities. In all this work encourage the child to continually express himself.

He may mould the forms he has examined in wax, clay, or snow, developing from them the objects he sees in real life. He may draw them on his slate or paper, adding color to his drawing, if encouraged. He may tell or write stories about them. He may hold them up before the class and lead others to see the same things. Original investigation and full expression on the part of the child are the two main points to be kept in mind by the teacher; they should be aimed at in every exercise of the school.

The child reads a sentence silently ; a new and amusing idea is awakened. With flushing cheek and laughing eye he repeats the idea to you. He has investigated and expressed.

He works with his counters, solving some little problem, and perhaps illustrates its solution by its own rude drawings. The same process has been repeated. The two parts are wedded by nature. Let not the teacher put asunder what God hath joined.

In all exercises of the school encourage the child to illustrate by pen, pencil, grouping of objects, in plastic form, or by his own words the ideas that have been awakened.

It is the development and constant exercise of the faculties, expressive, creative, and social, that ends in true culture, and these are the very foundation stones of Frœbel's system. This is the very heart of the kindergarten carried on into a new condition of work. Let us stretch out our hands toward those stranger hands, that after all are but carrying the other end of our burden. We are too near to pass each other by in chill indifference. The cause is too dear to be risked by coldness, suspicion, misapprehension.

There are wrongs in life to be righted, evils to be rooted out, false notions of duty to be corrected. There are hearts estranged from those ideals of purity and loveliness that should engage our most passionate loyalty. There is a discord and jar in life's harmonies, which shall be stilled only when men learn to know and love the right.

Oh, the deep want and striving, the unrest, the feverish longing of the multitudes! Like sheep without a shepherd are they, weak in purpose feeble in aim, strong but in our common heritage of sorrow.

We ask ourselves wistfully, "Is the good time never coming ?"

Like a gleam of sunshine through the troubled past steals the memory of one whose ardent loving knew no bounds, whose upright soul was above compromise, whose life was one service for his brother man. And that memory yet lives in the world's heart, and leads God's perplexed children on.

> "What we would be! That ideal
> With a faint. sweet radiance beams,
> And against our life's dull setting,
> Wondrous fair the Christ-life gleams
> Till that story in its glory,
> Speaks the longing of our dreams."

From the past one voice speaks to us, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these my little ones, ye have done it unto me."

DISCUSSION.

A MEMBER. I cannot repress a hearty amen to the last paper. Primary teachers East and West have the same work to do. Children need the kindergarten training. Our school board furnish me with all materials, but require me to do first and second grade work also. I am delighted with the result of the kindergarten work. We must begin at the beginning. When pupils first enter school, we must find what knowledge they have already gained, and proceed from that.

MISS DICKEY, of UTAH. The kindergarten prepares for the work of the primary school. The teacher must work upon the plane of the child's understanding; enter into sympathy with him. There is too much sentimentality about the kindergarten. Call out a spontaneous activity. The imagination colors the whole life. Through songs, games, and little acts of kindness the imagination is cultivated. We must make the kindergarten practical, teach the child the use of all his faculties, and through stories and in other ways cultivate his imagination rightly. When I see children on the streets, and realize how their imagination is being colored for all their after life, I feel that we must work more and talk less.

MR. BOTHWELL, of ALBANY, N. Y. We have not in our Albany schools the pure kindergarten, but we have found this to be a fact, that, if a child of four years is put into a kindergarten for three months, and then put into the primary department, he can do a year's work in that grade in six months. We have the kindergarten work adapted to little children, but not to larger or older pupils.

Perhaps some of you have read "The Evolution of Dodd." I want to tell one story from it. Dodd was six years old, and the son of a Methodist minister. He had never attended school but had learned much. His teacher's idea was that every child should go to the kindergarten, and he was accordingly given some sticks and peas, which latter he proceeded to eat.

He was then put into a class where the word method was being developed. The word was girl, and the teacher had the picture girl, the word girl, and the real girl, and the children were asked to point to each of these. After three or four had answered, Dodd was called upon. To the amazement of his teacher, in answer to her request, he replied, "I won't do it." When asked why he refused, he said, "I knowed all that before I came here." We should be careful to find out where to begin, go down to the child, and base our teaching on the knowledge he has previously acquired. The influence of one kindergarten spreads to our primary teachers, and is felt in our schools.

Miss Curtis, of Kansas City, Mo. I liked and want to enforce the expression used by Prof. Hailmann, "Going up to the child." Not. "going down," as the last speaker said.

Mr. Bothwell. The criticism is accepted.

Miss Curtis. In regard to Miss Brown's paper, she speaks of kindergarten work stepping up, and primary work stepping down. The primary rooms of to-day are beautiful, bright, and ornamental. If primary teachers would call for kindergarten materials for work, we would receive it.

Miss Brown. This has been my first public effort, and I find some friends do not quite understand me. I did not mean that the primary teacher should descend, but that she should hold out a helping hand to the kindergarten, that they may work more in sympathy with each other.

THE KINDERGARTEN IN THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

MISS ELEANOR BEEBE, INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND, LOUISVILLE, KY.

Thinking of the children I have lived with during the greater part of the last six years, I am reminded of Hawthorne's "trumpeter," who summoned by some common bond of brotherhood a various company to walk together in the "Procession of Life."

In this little band, gathered by the common tie of blindness, from mansion, almshouse, and all the grades between, there are of necessity many incongruous elements. There is the child of wise parents, whose aching hearts have constrained them to train their afflicted child to habits of good breeding and independence; the over-cherished "darling," petted and pitied into helplessness and selfishness; the self-reliant hard little street-child, trained as Tony Weller trained Sam—"I took a deal o' pains with 'is hiddication, sir, let 'im run the streets wen 'e was werry young, sir, and shift for 'isself;" then the child of the lowest poverty and ignorance utterly neglected, not diseased perhaps, but so weak in body and mind as often to seem idiotic; then, too, comes to us the pitiable little heir of vice; the child innocent, yet evil, diseased in body, mind and soul.

To enable such children to grow harmoniously, to nourish each according to its needs, is a difficult task. But, starting with some experience with sighted children, and proceeding "from the known to the unknown," I "learned to do by doing," heartened by the conviction that some phase of the joyous and versatile life of the kindergarten would arouse these different natures—some turn of this many-faceted jewel would send a ray into each darkened mind.

The blind are popularly supposed to be gifted—as a kind of providential atonement—with wonderful delicacy of touch and hearing, and special talent in music. Were this true it would simplify the work of the teacher very much. The loss of one sense naturally stunts the companion senses and stupefies the whole being, until "second nature," the good foster-mother, by the long and varied use of the remaining senses, perfects them through the need for substitution. The popular view is unjust to the blind, preventing a fair appreciation of the long, long effort necessary on their part to reach the ability they do.

The "kindergarten games" have been of the greatest importance in quickening them into life. Most are immediately attracted, and none fail in time to respond to their vitalizing power. The various "guessing games" did good work in arousing curiosity and in exercising the senses. After these they liked games in which there were sounds to imitate. It was interesting to see the "steam-car play" grow upon them. I taught them the song and the making of the depot, and then waited. They listened to every sound of passing trains, combined their travelling experiences, and evolved the train-engineer, brakesman calling the stations, conductor, with the click-click of his punch, train-boy noisy and natural, puffed a heavy train into motion, whistled cattle off the track, and from the skeleton furnished produced a full life-like play. Inspired by this they formed a "street-car play," without even a skeleton given.

In their "chicken play" they imitate the early rooster, both Brahma and bantam, the whistle of the hawk, and, after the brooding of the chickens at night-fall, the notes of the whip-poor-will and the owl. Great care is needed to make play real to them. They need a live bird, to feel its fluttering wings, a live fish in water. In their play of "the plow," I first had them examine a real plow and a furrow, and take turns as plowman and as horses dragging the plow about. Then we had talks, I taking notes, thus gathering plenty of material for the song. They are delighted to have their own thoughts dressed in rhyme. Then they formed the plow, one of the older pupils furnished the melody, and so, through their own experiences they grew into, and of, the world about them.

Some of the born blind have little use of their hands. So little will-power have they acquired that their thin hands feel actually boneless. For them I have used "finger-plays." After feeling my hands in position for "nest" or "cradle," they could not imitate it; adjust their hands and they could not keep them right. They seemed to need a third hand to carry the impression to the mind. Separate finger-action was still more difficult. I worked their fingers over and over with no success. They had no consciousness of each finger as an individual. Seeing one child make an attempt to work one hand with the other as we would numb fingers, I encouraged him. In this way he could soon make each finger act correctly. So, by treating his fingers objectively, he and others succeeded. I had been intent on a class exercise of the many fingers moving independently yet together. A pretty unity for me, but not for them, and therefore a mistake. Truly, "a child shall lead us," if we let him.

A most pressing need was for fixatives. Using fingers for both working and seeing produced disaster and disappointment in block-building, and in performing with sticks, squares, triangles, and rings. The able ones learned to hold with one hand and work with the other; but the helpless, the most needy, could do nothing unless I held the work and encouraged their wavering fingers. Often have I wished myself the hundred handed god. Seeing some toy blocks which fastened together by oval pieces of tin in incisions in the wood, we succeeded in getting the third and fourth gift blocks so prepared, and now the children are happy. A difficult invention can be freely passed around and thoroughly examined; a simpler one, withheld from touch, can be taught by description,—the proud little teacher going about and feeling the work of each. And many new forms have been developed impossible with loose blocks.

For other work requiring fastenings I found, after many experiments, that Russian felt served the purpose. A piece for each child is covered with cambric, which, stitched with saddler's silk in inch squares, makes a raised net-work. On these cushions sticks, rings, and tablets are fixed by means of tiny staples. One child says the wooden tablets are too thick, causing the loss of the guiding-line. He suggests zinc tablets instead. This work is not as absorbing to them as it is to natural children, and I feared the mistaking of mere docile acceptance for a real interest. Their natural leaning to guidance is misleading, and one needs to distinguish carefully between the two, and not be content with the passive condition. To test it, I omitted this work, but they soon asked for it. So, in spite of its difficulties, it seems to arouse a vital interest.

There was in use for arithmetic, before a better method was devised, the type-slate, a frame of cells. In these cells lead types were used, on each of which is a raised figure. These slates prove very adaptable to kindergarten use ignoring the figures. Many form-lessons can be given on them, though of course they do not admit of the use of the curve. These slates are useful, too, for the inventing of designs for mat-weaving. It would seem impossible for a child who has never seen to understand the delineation on the flat of a solid—to comprehend the nature of a picture. The use of these slates surprised me with what seems like the germ of such comprehension. The class were taught to make with type a vertical oblong five by three. A little girl, blind from the first week of life, exclaimed, "That's like a boy, if he had some arms." She added arms, legs, neck, in the order given—no head until I suggested it. I then tried all who had never seen. In every case they added arms first, then legs. Some stopped there; one made the "boy" in a horizontal position, another upside down, and not one paid any attention to the head as differentiated from the neck, until that useful excrescence was suggested to them. Mrs. Mann once said that the first drawings of ordinary children consist generally of merely a head and legs. These blind children gave first place to body and arms. An incident in the game of recognizing each other by touch gives, perhaps, a reason for this, and, at the same time, gives a glimpse of how limited their world often is. A boy, born blind, and of slow, weak mind was the guesser; the guessee was a grown-up friend who had joined in the game. He felt her head, glasses, collar, looked blank at her difference from the children, and gave it up. Then she gave him her hands,—recognition dawned and he exclaimed, "Why, it's Miss Barbara!" Much of the human world is to them but a voice and a hand. So, in representing it, they naturally give first place to what they know best. Perhaps, too, the fact that the hand and arm is to them so important an avenue of knowledge, and that it unites with trunk instead of head, may help to account for these headless pictures.

Paper-folding is a very successful means of development. The usual kindergarten papers are used for the symmetrical forms both of folding and of cutting in the simple designs to which these children are limited. But for the forms of life, houses, barns, furniture, more substantial paper is needed. Finding that many were disturbed by change of size in the folding-square, I use sizes from one inch up to the foot. With these, and also, oblong and circular papers, they have invented some excellent forms. To aid in folding these stiffer papers they use a toy flat-iron, which adds to the interest and accustoms them to the use of another tool.

Mat-weaving is made interesting by the use of mats of manilla-paper, and interweaving strips of a high gloss, thus affording a contrast to the touch. For some beginners it is necessary to make mats of leather, into which they weave the wooden slat. The "hand-weaving" is easily done by pinning the foundation strips on the felt cushions.

Card-sewing also needed modification. The ordinary card proved too frail for the combination of finger-sight and finger-work. We use smooth, tough cards with perforations one-third of an inch apart. These, for many, need perforating from the embossed side, to render the perforations tangible on both sides of the card. For some even these are too difficult. Such need, for a beginning, the toughest card-board, inch spaces, a large darning-needle with point broken off, and the toughest patience on the part of the teacher.

Clay is excellent. It is so yielding that it entices the most inert fingers, and simply punching holes in it is better than the utter aimlessness and stupor that is apt to become a habit with the blind. Of course they must have the real to model from. Nuts, fruits, vegetables are given them, and afterward each child is allowed to eat his patterns, with a few exceptions, notably, when the lesson has been upon the onion. The animal world has also furnished many lessons—literal "forms of life." They enjoy copying the "forms of beauty" from vases and shells. For fine work they prefer wax to clay, and all enjoy greatly an occasional hour with dough-kneading and rolling it, and cutting it in every variety of form. The work of each little baker's-man is carefully grouped, baked, and served to him at table. Form-impressions, absorbed in such a variety of ways, are our hopes thoroughly assimilated.

Learning the use of a tool is difficult for many of the blind. In helping them one is constrained to wish the sense of feeling could pass on into the tool—that the sense contact need not be broken. To accustom them to a knife a cake of white soap is a mine of wealth. It is firm, yet so soft as not to exact much strength in carving, and a dull knife can be used. The square seems the best form on which to begin; from it they get mathematically, the triangle, oblong, circle; playfully table-tops, chair-seats, wheels; from the cube, the cylinder, and ball; and life-forms too numerous to mention. I recall an amusing incident with our soap-cutting; on asking for the result after cutting off the four corners of the square, the children answered, "It makes eight corners—two in place of one." One boy declared that impossible, "cutting off a corner could not make two." On proving it for himself he was really vexed at finding his logic falsified by fact. One was reminded of the many conservative wiseacres who have proven the impracticability of every invention, and lived to see its success.

United work for a common end is of deep importance in any kindergarten. Familiarity with the occupations separately gives an impression of a multiplicity of pleasing details. Such individual independent successes give but a narrow apprenticeship, something like learning to make all the parts of a watch and never seeing them put together into the perfect whole. The poetry of the work, the crowning grace of its harmonious unity both socially and intellectually, is lost unless much attention is given to co-operative work. And this is doubly important to blind children because of their at once isolated and dependent condition. It develops a healthy social feeling. To borrow a phrase, "It implants the sense of fellow-laborhood in the field of the world." These little ones have united in furnishing a little house of two rooms—the outcome of their memories of home needs expressed in the various kindergarten materials; also, a school-room and a farm-yard, each choosing his own contribution to the general fund. Their last combination effort was the making tangible of the pretty little song, "I saw a ship a-sailing." They folded a large boat, covered the masts with gilt paper and made the sailor mice and cap duck of clay. A friend promised "raisins in the cabin, candy kisses in the hold;" one objected that they wouldn't be "our work." The suggestion to copy them in clay and wax, leaving the genuine articles for other disposal, met with unanimous approval.

Four years ago came to us a girl seven years old, born blind, scrawny, weak, and bowed as an aged woman. She constantly swayed back and forth making strange grimaces. She ate by applying her mouth to her plate. She did not chew her food, swallowing chokingly large pieces. At any attempt to correct her table habits she threw everything within reach. She had never had a bath and was greatly frightened at the cleansing process, and for months was an unspeakable trial to the nurse and all who had the care of her. She was subject to long fits of aimless crying, and to flashes of anger, when she shook her head and rushed at the children with open mouth to bite. But for weakness she would have been harmful. She sometimes assumed some favorite contortion, continuing it for days, then changed to another. I found her finger-ends were very sore, pulling off her nails seeming to have been her only occupation. The habit was so fixed that she tore them till they bled, crying, unable seemingly to connect the pain with her own action. My work was hindered long by the necessity of getting her fingers in usable condition. A glove was kept on each hand alternately till her fingers were well and the habit broken. If taken by the hand or touched on the shoulder she always smelled of the part touched. This was the one hopeful symptom in the general discouraging apathy. Her attention was held by nothing but music. Its first effect was singular to see. At the opening notes of the morning hymn, she swayed more rapidly back and forth, and put her hands over her ears. Then she sprang up and groped her arm's length in every direction as if the sound were tangible. The kindergarten singing affected her in the same way, but this wore off and she has since delighted in music. She paid no attention to the games, my strong hope with most new-comers. She never refused to join, but merely stayed put, as passive as if standing in her sleep. In ring-games her neighbors were obliged to hold her by the wrist. The children march with hands on the shoulders of the next in front. It was necessary for weeks to hold her hands in place. A doll pleased her but seemed a burden to hold. I sometimes tied it to her waist for a little while that she might find it easily. Her few letters from home were also utilized by suspending them about her neck for a day or two, thus giving a little aid by an oft-recurring pleasant thought in interrupting her habitual vacancy. The first attempt at handiwork was with the "second gift beads." I gave her a box of the half-inch balls, rattled them, filled her hands with them, diverting her by such play from her incessant rocking and rambling talk. Then I guided her hands to string the balls on wire. She soon resumed her aimless talk, but the steady motion had a noticeably quieting effect, and the necklace to wear was a real pleasure. Next time I continually interrupted her by exclamations and little talks about the balls, and gradually released my control of her hands, thus drawing her attention more and more, till in a few weeks her hands were steady enough to string a necklace unassisted. and she had ceased talking when at work. The great difficulty for some time was to keep her from sinking into her swaying, grimacing vacancy while I attended to the twenty others needing care. She liked a box of sand. and that kept her hands in motion, strengthening wrist and finger muscles; but as she could never be induced to shape or build with it, remaining satisfied with continuous aimless motion, I substituted other things as soon as possible. Such children have so strong a tendency to the automatic, that one must watch carefully to prevent their sinking back into it.

A toy music box was a great delight almost daily for two years. Once fearing it was about to pall, I showed her how the sound varied by placing it on different substances, and then she experimented, wandering about the room with it. At the end of six months she could string alone a chain of three-quarter inch and one-half inch balls in succession. She now took a little interest in the children, and named the small balls for three "Sophies" in school, always naming the youngest first. I could now give her a box of mixed beads to assort for me, also squares and triangles, though this needed care. If left too long she emptied the box, tore it, and ate part of it.

She has always preferred balls, seeming to dislike the corners of the cube, and she chooses a contrast of size rather than a contrast of form. She soon began to sing, a strain here and there, then connectedly; afterward the alto attracted her and she sang a measure of treble or alto fitfully. Now she can take either part independently. For nearly three years her progress was marked by all kinds of malicious tricks, such as catching a child about the neck and hanging her weight upon him; thrusting her newly-acquired nails into him; patting the nurse's arm, then giving her a sharp nip with her teeth; coming to me affectionately, and suddenly twisting my fingers or treading on my feet. The close of the fourth year shows her a gentle, happy child. True to her first love she often asks for beads, stringing easily twelve tiny glass beads for chickens and a ball for the hen. She enjoys the games, combining singing and action—before, she alternated the two. She works with clay, which she refused until this year, folds a little, works patiently at a sewing-card, and enjoys the building cubes. Her own description of how she made a bed with blocks will best show her present stage of growth: "First I made a three-post," (three cubes fastened together vertically) "and then I made a two-post; and then I made another two-post; and then, you know, I laid the three-post down, and tinned the two-post on one end, and then I tinned the other one on the other end, and then it was just even, you know; and then I had just one block left, and I tinned that on one end and that made it high, high, high! and that was the head-board, and then the bed was done."

Three years ago we received a boy of eleven years, very unlike this girl in physique and temperament. He was fat, flabby, and exceedingly slow in every sense and movement. He could walk but little, making almost no use of the ankle and knee-joints; would fall over a door-sill or rug, if unsupported. The soles of his feet were as soft and rounded as a baby's. His pockets were filled with tobacco. He "'lowed he'd chaw it. Pap let him chaw sweet tobokker." He looked a hopeless case that first morning, the vacant face showing no interest in anything we did, his body rocking and his head wagging so incessantly as to make one dizzy.

But he put out his hand and examined the table before him and my heart lightened. In the marching I put him at the end and held his hands in place, the line moving very slowly; he was pleased and wanted to go again. The ring movements were more difficult, as he could not comprehend any but straightforward movement. The two strongest boys held him by the arms, and I supported him at the back. A few minutes of this exercise was enough for him and for us. He complained of aching knees and I sat him down. I first tried the type-slate with him. He could soon drop a type into a cell and he beamed with delighted surprise. The great point is to find something for a beginning so simple that they can succeed. Success is stimulating. He could, after a little guidance, string the half-inch balls, and this pleasure roused him up to loud talking, and at every ball that dropped he uttered a roar. His ability to string a long wire-full, proved more power of mind and hand than his appearance indicated.

It was soon evident that he had time and tune, which was of great help in inducing him to learn to walk. He was very sluggish and refused with all his weight to walk during play-hours; but the marches and games so pleased him that he never complained till really tired. His fat baby-face wore a smile of satisfaction, and the spat-spat of his unwieldy tread was in perfect time. Sound gave him no sense of direction. Unlike other blind children, he cannot follow a voice, generally turning and going the opposite way. Lately there seemed a slight improvement shown in a little game he likes, in which "Kitty White so slyly comes to catch dear Pussy Grey." At the mewing of "Pussy" behind him he turns partially and gropes for her. This game has also helped the little girl described. Her first attempts at catching "Pussy" were mere feeble prancings on one spot, not even extending her hands. If "Pussy" brushed against her she lacked presence of mind to grasp her. Now she can catch, but is still unable to take the other part. This boy had, in common with other untaught blind children, a peculiar number-sense. I found he seized at one grasp the number required. He could not count by units. On trial with objects of various sizes, he failed to get the number if the objects were too large to be contained in his hand at one grasp. His number limit was four. The limit with others was five. The close of his third year finds him much improved in walking. He can handle a knife and scissors intelligently, is interested in all the occupations. He called for his box of cubes daily and built in silence with intent look—no head motion—feeling the results with placid satisfaction.

A branch establishment has this year been opened for the colored blind. One of these pupils, a girl of seven years, is of this helpless class. At home she was dressed and set out of doors in a safe place to stay, not to walk about. She was fed there. Sometimes the pigs stole her food.

and then she went without. She knew nothing of the use of fork, spoon, or plate. In winter she sat in a corner with the grandmother, out of the way. She knew nothing about animals, playmates, or playthings. They had a hog named "Stuffy," and once she was allowed to put her hand on its back. Her weak little fingers looked like bird-claws. In walking she bent to a horizontal from the hips and hitched along. She is fat and sluggish, very sleepy when set at any hand work. But she sings readily, and enjoys the games so much that she nearly twists herself into a bowknot with delight. At the close of the session, she walked erect, could fold paper coops for her cube and cylinder fowls, and worked with interest, for a few minutes, at several occupations. She has begun to live.

Last November, a lady brought to us her boy of eight years. He could see a little. Had been subject to epilepsy from infancy up to the seventh year. He was utterly untrained. He screamed if the children took his hand, and struck and kicked them for grouping about him. He rushed headlong about the house and grounds, the children following and trying to attract him. He found their wagon, beat off every child, and tore about the yard with it. He defied me with hands, feet, and voice. I carried him in, washed him, and brushed his hair; this quieted him, as it generally will an angry child, and he went willingly to the class-room. I gave him a slate and found he did not use the ends of his fingers, seizing the type between the first joints of finger and thumb. Also, that he did not use his left hand. He fumbled the type in for some time without order, then became restless; he would do nothing with blocks, merely pounding with and biting them. He paid no attention to singing, reciting, or stories, but rocked, wagged his head, thrust both fists in his mouth at once—the only voluntary use he made of his left hand—licked the table, and bit the chairs. Unlike the three cases before given he had great activity, was very restless and flighty. He liked to march, holding with the right hand only. He tried each game, but broke away almost immediately—"Tired of this!" "Don't like that!" spending the intervening time in loud whining.

I put balls on a wire for him, then let him try, having him adjust them to suit himself. Finding he must use his left hand, he took the wire in his right, placed it in the left, then seized the balls between finger and thumb joints and fumbled them on. This he liked. By and by I gave him cubes and balls mixed, without saying anything about them. He noted no difference for some time, then, finding the cubes easier to hold in his peculiar way, he chose them, leaving the balls to the last. So from his weakness came his first attempt to classify. Though he handled small things so awkwardly, he did great execution with a stick, scattering the children rapidly. Sticks and rocks were carefully removed, and then he bit, spat, and scratched. Frequent removal from the playground by force was necessary. I enlisted the children's sympathies for him as far as possible, but this was a little difficult under the circumstances. He showed no affection and no home sickness.

He began to listen to the singing, and soon sang the airs, using the words merely as meaningless sounds to carry the air,—many professional singers have that weakness, however. Next, he tried to recite, but his experiences were so limited that few words had any meaning for him. So simple a line as "When the corn begins to sprout," he turned into a jumble of empty sounds. He didn't know what "corn" was, much less "sprout." I gave him some corn, had him, with the others, plant some, and helped each to measure the growth of this fast-growing plant every week. After the children had learned the little rhymes about the corn, they, as they often like to do, played them; each one acting the life of a plant. This boy enjoyed going with me to hoe these child-plants, gather the corn, cut the stalks and mass them into a corn-shock—which showed his imagination was developing. So quiet a play was not ordinarily attractive to his boisterous nature. But he was present during its growth, and so became interested, which proves the value of home-made plays. He formed a friendship at last, with a little boy who taught him to spin a top. I enlisted this interesting top-spinner, as an ally in class-work, and Sam succeeded in teaching him the circular motion with both hands in rolling clay, and then the two amassed wealth in making marbles.

The fact that kindergarten work demands the use of both hands and of the finger tips is of the greatest benefit to this child. After three months he used the finger ends of his right hand. His great perverseness stands much in the way of his development. To overcome his determination not to try to use his left hand, I named the fore-finger "Charlie," and he named the right fore-finger "Jim." Dialogues between these two fingers have so interested him in them objectively, that he forgets to refuse, and becomes interested in making "Charlie" help "poor, tired Jim." But the nerves of motion and sensation are plainly injured to some extent; and I should have no hope of their recovery, but that he has improved so much in the use of his right fingers. He can now use the quarter-inch beads, stringing correctly cube, cylinder, and ball in succession, and working at such simple occupations with interest for fifteen minutes at a time. He likes all the games, and that, of course, implies conformity to law and order. This conformity is evident, too, upon the play-ground, his outbursts of rage being less frequent and violent.

These children know nothing of the happy developing activity that we call play—for the aimless restlessness of the last mentioned child was not play, he had merely fought. It is true that "deep meaning often lies in childish play," but deep and very *sad* meaning lies in the fact that a child has never played.

These are not average specimens. They are the lower notes of an ascending scale, selected, because, but for the effect of kindergarten principles and appliances, they would have been returned to their homes as incapable of school education.

Most of these abnormal children will accept memory lessons with fatal ease. Before the kindergarten was introduced into the institution, one such child was taught to recite the bones of the head in rhyme. And that well-meaning teacher did not know that such work was as innutritive, as resultless as chewing gum! Shall we give these starving children the primer and the multiplication table? For bread, shall we give them worse than a stone?—for they might learn to play with that—shall we give them opium? The weak, helpless bodies must be strengthened by variety of use, the limp fingers made tense with intention, the feeble, wandering minds attracted, the whole nature roused and made happy.

The world is seeing now what the kindergarten can do for its natural children. The time is passing when men will look upon it as did a rich man some years ago, who, when asked to send his children to my kindergarten, exclaimed, "No! I can get my children *herded* all day for half the money!" But the world does not yet know what Frœbel can do for her defective, abnormal children. There is sore need of him in every school for the blind, for the deaf and dumb, for the feeble-minded. Who can equal him in teaching us how the natural, wise, and loving working of the humane upon these little ones, can make them human?

A story tells of some far embassy, dispatched to buy the favor of an Eastern king; and how the gifts they offered proved but dazzling dust shed from the ore-beds native to his clime.

"Shall the production of form out of unshaped stuff be art, and to evoke a *soul* from form be nothing?"

DISCUSSION.

Chicago, Illinois, Wednesday, July 13, 1887.

The Department of Elementary Schools was called to order by the president, W. H. Bartholomew, of Louisville, Kentucky, at 2.30, P. M., in Farwell Hall.

Mr. Bartholomew explained that the part of the programme which promised an address by the president would not be carried out, as it had been thought best, on consultation with the president of the general Association, to have only two papers presented and have these fully discussed. Mrs. N. S. Williams of Catlettsburgh, Kentucky, then read a paper upon "Union of Oral Teaching and Book Teaching in the Several Grades," or "The Place and Function of Oral Teaching in Elementary Schools."

The following took part in the discussion which ensued:—J. M. Greenwood, Z. Richards, W N. Hailmann, Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, and Miss E. E. Curtis.

The time for the discussion of this paper having expired, the president introduced Dr. Nathan C. Schæffer, of Kutztown, Pennsylvania, who read a paper upon "Meaning and Limitation of the Maxim, 'We learn to do by doing,' in the Elementary Schools." The discussion was opened by Col. Francis W. Parker, Normal Park, Illinois.

At the close of his address there was a little good natured intellectual sparring between himself and Dr. Schæffer, but the substance of the faith of the second gentlemen is in his paper, and of the first in his remarks recorded elsewhere.

Mr. J. W. Holcombe, of Washington, D. C., moved that the chair appoint a committee of three upon the nomination of officers for this department, for the ensuing year. The chair appointed J. W. Holcombe, Washington, D. C., C. F. Palmer, Ohio, and T. P. McDonald, Nevada.

Although the hour was late and the afternoon warm, Mr. George E. Little, of Washington, D. C., held the delighted attention of the large audience with a short talk on "Illustrative Teaching," which was very ably illustrated with rapid crayon sketches.

The Department then adjourned to meet Friday, July 15th, at 3.30, P. M.

MINUTES OF SECOND SESSION.

sident called the Department to order at 3.30, P. M., Friday, July 15th. The reading of the minutes of the previous session was dispensed with. The president then introduced Robert Allyn, of Carbondale, Illinois, who read a paper upon "Importance of Religious Motives and Sanctions in Moral Training."

At the close of the reading of this paper, Leroy D. Brown, of Ohio, spoke of the excellence of the paper and of his hearty concurrence with most of the thoughts expressed in it, but asked to be excused from further discussion on account of the extreme heat of the afternoon and the lateness of the hour.

The president then called for the report of the committee on nominations. The report, which was unanimously adopted, is as follows:—For President, Leroy D. Brown, Ohio; for Vice President, Miss Agnes I. Rounds, Massachusetts; for Secretary, J. L. Lampson, Tennessee.

President Bartholomew then thanked all who had participated in the programme of the Department, and expressed his satisfaction with the work performed, and the Department then adjourned.

MARGARET W. SUTHERLAND,
Secretary.

THE UNION OF ORAL TEACHING AND BOOK TEACHING IN THE SEVERAL GRADES.

MRS. N. S. WILLIAMS, CATLETTSBURGH, KENTUCKY.

Oral teaching is the instruction given by the living teacher. Book teaching is the instruction received from books, and they are as inseparable—save in the earliest childhood—as virtue and modesty. Inseparable in the primary, inseparable in the preparatory, inseparable in the higher grades, inseparable in the scientific and collegiate courses. In the primary, the oral teaching predominates; in the higher grades, book teaching has the ascendency. The ratio of one to the other may be illustrated by the states of Vermont and New Hampshire, the southern line of New Hampshire, representing oral teaching, diminishing as you go up; the southern line of Vermont, representing book-teaching, increasing as you go up.

The most of you remember the time when there was no oral teaching. Those of you whose years number as many as mine remember too vividly the dull, hard lessons we were compelled to learn out of dry text books, and how complacently the master sat in his high chair, with the book before him, and asked us the questions which the author of the book had arranged for him, and expected and required us to give the answers, *verbatim, et literatim, et punctuatim.* Little did it matter to him, whether we knew the meaning of one word in the answer or not. Some of these answers were just about as intelligible to us, as the word acephalous was to the boy, who spelled, "A-c-e-p-h, aceph, a louse without a head."

It was my fortune, either good or bad, I don't know which you will term it, to have one teacher nine years, from the time I was five years old until I was fourteen, the golden period of every child's school life, and during that time that teacher never stood up before a class and told them anything more than the children could find in the book. A class in arithmetic he never had. As the boys of the present time would say, "every fellow ciphered on his own hook." If we stalled, and the older ones would not work the "sum" for us, we would march up to the teacher who would take book, slate, and pencil, solve the example, and hand it to us without one word of comment.

We had spelling classes. Oh, yes. We could spell and pronounce every word in the old blue-back speller, from "baker" to "unintelligibility";

could rattle off like a music box, a-i-r air, a-r-e are, h-e-i-r heir, and we could not read "It is an ox." We had geography classes, could name all the towns, rivers, lakes, islands, mountains, etc.; give all the definitions, repeat, as if reciting a poem, page after page of the coarse print, and fine print too; learned that the world was round and turned on its axis, knew it had two poles, one north and the other south; but, verily, I believe that the members of that school who died young, passed away believing these poles were either hickory or cedar.

We had grammar classes. That grand old Kircum's grammar is still my pole star. We could give every definition, repeat every rule, recite every remark under each rule, by its number, and could not construct, "John desires to go." Did this school-work do us any good? Were these nine years of hard, plodding, anxious toil wasted? Nay, verily; you talk about your self-made men. All the advantage that teacher was to us, was to keep us in the school-room eight hours a day, and make us learn the lessons assigned; and if we didn't do it, whip us until we did. The result was, at the end of the nine years, when we were fortunate enough to have an instructor as well as a master, we had power enough within ourselves to do almost anything you would expect children of our ages to do, if it was acquired under treble difficulties. Friends, if we had had the instruction which teachers of the present time give their pupils, Kentucky might be able to boast of more than one James B. Beck and John G. Carlisle. I did enough mental work the first ten years of my school life, if I'd had the proper help and instruction, to have made a second Madame de Stael.

In those days, men who were too lazy to make a living at anything else, *kept* school. But times are changed. Now, the best, the noblest, the truest specimens of manhood and womanhood toil in the school-room, until throat, lungs, and constitution give way, and then seek less arduous labor. And the boys and girls who are too indolent to do anything at home go to school. In those days the teacher took the world easy, and the pupils did the work. Now, as a general thing, the teachers do the work, and the pupils look on. First one extreme, then the other. If we can only strike a happy medium between the two, the science and art of teaching will be almost perfect.

Oral teaching, like kindergarten, natural method, object lessons, word method, etc., has been run into the ground. They are hobbies, which many teachers with one idea have recklessly ridden, until they have been dashed to the ground, where they lie crippled or maimed, and the pity is, that more have not met with the same disaster.

I have seen entire classes that have been taught by these wonderful reformers, and they were nothing more than parrot-like children, giving out, just as they had taken in, the ideas and facts received from the teacher. They were no more capable of combining concepts, forming ideas, originating thought, than a set of well-trained poll parrots in an aviary. Such teaching as this, I hold to be not only a failure, but detrimental to the science and art of teaching, and an outrage on the activities and possibilities of the child mind.

I would not have it as it was when I was a child—toil, toil; plod, plod; chisel, chisel; until back, brow, and brain all ached, before you found one gem: and I am almost afraid to give my views to this body of enthusiastic, wide-awake, progressive teachers, but, really, I do believe, in many cases, we have too much oral instruction. Euclid said: "There is no royal road to geometry." But I am almost ready to believe the path is a bed of roses, adorned on either side by rich, fragrant exotics, that leads up the hill of science at the present day.

Text-books give too much help, teachers give too much help. Every difficulty is removed, or so opened up, there is nothing left to create power, or try the metal of the mind. Some minds are incapable of taking hold of anything, unless they can stretch out, as it were, and grasp it for themselves. You pick up a child every time it falls down, and it never will learn to get up without help. You reach the toy for the child every time you see it struggle to obtain that which is beyond its grasp, and it will soon cease to make any effort. Little children ought to have help. Grown pupils ought to have help—but too much help is like too much medicine, it weakens the patient beyond all hopes of restoration. Everything learned by young children, whether taught by nurse, mother, or teacher, must be taught by having the objects presented to them, or objectively. How long would it take a child to discriminate between a cat and a dog, a horse and a cow, a wagon and a sled, if it did not see the objects themselves? You may take our classes in natural history from almost any school in the land where there is no museum, place them inside the canvas of a menagerie with a boy of ten or twelve years, who has been a frequent attendant upon animal shows, or a constant visitor at a zoological garden, and there will be no comparison between the readiness of the boy and the class in recognizing and naming the animals present. The boy may not know so much about the habits of the animals as those who have studied the book, but, ten to one, the class will swamp before the boy will.

The nursery days are over. All of our children when they enter school, however young, have concepts and ideas just in proportion to the intelligence of the nurses and parents. The child brought up in the country has such concepts as the objects around its home, play-ground, the fields and forests would furnish. The child brought up in the city has just as many, but as different as it is possible for two classes of concepts to be, and it is to be expected that when school days begin, oral teaching will go right along; but from this time on, oral teaching and book teaching must go hand in hand—much oral teaching, little book teaching. Oral teaching must precede and prepare the way for book teaching in all grades of school, but there must be no chasm between. The first oral lesson given by the teacher should open the way for the child to take one step alone. I don't claim that we should attempt to impart knowledge to these little children by putting them to studying the book; but if the first lesson is on the dog, after having drawn or shown a child the picture, found out all he knows by asking questions, so inspire and enthuse him, that he will promise to tell you something more about the dog the next lesson. In doing this, he takes his first step alone. Children like talking. The first knowledge which they acquire is presented to the mind through the ear; so they early form the habit of listening to and comprehending spoken language. You may see two or three children in a room where some one is reading a story. No matter how interesting, it will be very difficult to hold their attention; but just let the book be laid aside, and the person begin to relate the same story, the children manifest an interest and eagerness which is astonishing. Then too, at this time, the beginning of school, the children have a great number of concepts acquired by observation, experience, and home instruction, also quite a vocabulary of associated words, which express and recall this knowledge. They have discerned many of the relations between familiar objects, have acquired some skill in expressing these facts themselves, and more in apprehending them, when thus expressed by another.

All these are an advantage to the scholar. He is also familiar with many words which do not express any definite concept or are associated with wrong ones, and it is the teacher's duty to explain or correct them. As an illustration, a Methodist minister had a very bright little boy who was passionately fond of horses. A man by the name of Bishop, who had a stable just on the opposite side of the street from where the little boy lived, ran a line of 'buses. This little fellow would climb up on the fence and sit for hours watching the horses as they were being harnessed, hitched, and driven off in the 'bus. On one occasion, when the father was demonstrating the fact that he was proud of his boy, by telling a brother minister he was going to make a preacher out of him, he was somewhat surprised when the little fellow answered, "Pa, I'm not going to be preacher. I am going to be a Bishop, and have lots of horses and wagons." If that father had spent some of the time in giving him instruction which he spent in making him commit verses which he did not and could not understand, he would not have confounded the livery stable keeper with the highest officer in the Methodist church. I knew a little girl who had never been out of a large city. She could read beautifully and could recite

But he put out his hand and examined the table before him and my heart lightened. In the marching I put him at the end and held his hands in place, the line moving very slowly; he was pleased and wanted to go again. The ring movements were more difficult, as he could not comprehend any but straightforward movement. The two strongest boys held him by the arms, and I supported him at the back. A few minutes of this exercise was enough for him and for us. He complained of aching knees and I sat him down. I first tried the type-slate with him. He could soon drop a type into a cell and he beamed with delighted surprise. The great point is to find something for a beginning so simple that they can succeed. Success is stimulating. He could, after a little guidance, string the half-inch balls, and this pleasure roused him up to loud talking, and at every ball that dropped he uttered a roar. His ability to string a long wire-full, proved more power of mind and hand than his appearance indicated.

It was soon evident that he had time and tune, which was of great help in inducing him to learn to walk. He was very sluggish and refused with all his weight to walk during play-hours; but the marches and games so pleased him that he never complained till really tired. His fat baby-face wore a smile of satisfaction, and the spat-spat of his unwieldy tread was in perfect time. Sound gave him no sense of direction. Unlike other blind children, he cannot follow a voice, generally turning and going the opposite way. Lately there seemed a slight improvement shown in a little game he likes, in which "Kitty White so slyly comes to catch dear Pussy Grey." At the mewing of "Pussy" behind him he turns partially and gropes for her. This game has also helped the little girl described. Her first attempts at catching "Pussy" were mere feeble prancings on one spot, not even extending her hands. If "Pussy" brushed against her she lacked presence of mind to grasp her. Now she can catch, but is still unable to take the other part. This boy had, in common with other untaught blind children, a peculiar number-sense. I found he seized at one grasp the number required. He could not count by units. On trial with objects of various sizes, he failed to get the number if the objects were too large to be contained in his hand at one grasp. His number limit was four. The limit with others was five. The close of his third year finds him much improved in walking. He can handle a knife and scissors intelligently, is interested in all the occupations. He called for his box of cubes daily and built in silence with intent look—no head motion—feeling the results with placid satisfaction.

A branch establishment has this year been opened for the colored blind. One of these pupils, a girl of seven years, is of this helpless class. At home she was dressed and set out of doors in a safe place to stay, not to walk about. She was fed there. Sometimes the pigs stole her food.

and then she went without. She knew nothing of the use of fork, spoon, or plate. In winter she sat in a corner with the grandmother, out of the way. She knew nothing about animals, playmates, or playthings. They had a hog named "Stuffy," and once she was allowed to put her hand on its back. Her weak little fingers looked like bird-claws. In walking she bent to a horizontal from the hips and hitched along. She is fat and sluggish, very sleepy when set at any hand work. But she sings readily, and enjoys the games so much that she nearly twists herself into a bow-knot with delight. At the close of the session, she walked erect, could fold paper coops for her cube and cylinder fowls, and worked with interest, for a few minutes, at several occupations. She has begun to live.

Last November, a lady brought to us her boy of eight years. He could see a little. Had been subject to epilepsy from infancy up to the seventh year. He was utterly untrained. He screamed if the children took his hand, and struck and kicked them for grouping about him. He rushed headlong about the house and grounds, the children following and trying to attract him. He found their wagon, beat off every child, and tore about the yard with it. He defied me with hands, feet, and voice. I carried him in, washed him, and brushed his hair; this quieted him, as it generally will an angry child, and he went willingly to the class-room. I gave him a slate and found he did not use the ends of his fingers, seizing the type between the first joints of finger and thumb. Also, that he did not use his left hand. He fumbled the type in for some time without order, then became restless; he would do nothing with blocks, merely pounding with and biting them. He paid no attention to singing, reciting, or stories, but rocked, wagged his head, thrust both fists in his mouth at once—the only voluntary use he made of his left hand—licked the table, and bit the chairs. Unlike the three cases before given he had great activity, was very restless and flighty. He liked to march, holding with the right hand only. He tried each game, but broke away almost immediately—"Tired of this!" "Don't like that!" spending the intervening time in loud whining.

I put balls on a wire for him, then let him try, having him adjust them to suit himself. Finding he must use his left hand, he took the wire in his right, placed it in the left, then seized the balls between finger and thumb joints and fumbled them on. This he liked. By and by I gave him cubes and balls mixed, without saying anything about them. He noted no difference for some time, then, finding the cubes easier to hold in his peculiar way, he chose them, leaving the balls to the last. So from his weakness came his first attempt to classify. Though he handled small things so awkwardly, he did great execution with a stick, scattering the children rapidly. Sticks and rocks were carefully removed, and then he bit, spat, and scratched. Frequent removal from be banished from the school-room. I have heard teachers say they did not want a grammar, arithmetic, or history in their school-room, and if they had a globe and outline maps they would want no geography. At the same time all the knowledge presented by some books might be taught orally, yet since the end of school-training is not the imparting of knowledge alone, the pupil must have the power to acquire knowledge from books, and to do this pupils must have practice in the study of books. Practice here, as under all other circumstances, makes perfect. "It is the testimony of many experienced teachers, that where oral teaching has been prominent, pupils have less ability to master books than in former days, and less effective habit of study," and I endorse the sentiment. We all know it is possible, and we see evidences of it every year, to train a pupil into the habit of relying on the living teacher for guidance in observation and thought, for stimulation and inspiration, so that he has neither the inclination nor the power to hold the mind to the study of the printed page until its contents are mastered. Does such training prepare one for the life work? Does such training develop the men and women which the vicissitudes of fortune at the present time demand?

I remember having a young gentleman with me a few years ago, who had depended on his teacher in this way, until he was as unfitted as a child to master the thoughts on the pages of his mental philosophy. He used to come to me and say, "Mrs. Williams, won't you talk to me about this subject?" Helpless young man, I thought. Who will talk to you about the problems of life that you will be compelled to solve when your school-days are over?

In almost any science the more obvious facts can be taught orally, and most of them can be learned from a good text-book; but more effectually can they be learned if the study be preceded by the necessary oral instruction, made effective by observation. The materials for such objective teaching and study are within easy reach in every science, and the text, the illustrations, and experiments of a good book made easy to master. To this end oral teaching and observation must go hand in hand with earnest book study; and to secure such study, lessons must be assigned, and pupils required to master them. There is not a chapter in any textbook, that young pupils, and very many older ones, can study with the best results without preparatory instruction, and few truths are so stated that the living teacher cannot throw needed light upon them, thus adding to the pupil's knowledge, increasing his interest, and awakening in his mind a desire to investigate.

When you reach the higher branches, the acquiring of knowledge from books is less difficult than before, if the pupils have had the right kind of instruction. Why? Because the pupil possesses increased ability and power to interpret the written page. Yet even here oral teaching is nec-

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the playground by force was necessary. I enlisted the children's sympathies for him as far as possible, but this was a little difficult under the circumstances. He showed no affection and no home sickness.

He began to listen to the singing, and soon sang the airs, using the words merely as meaningless sounds to carry the air,—many professional singers have that weakness, however. Next, he tried to recite, but his experiences were so limited that few words had any meaning for him. So simple a line as "When the corn begins to sprout," he turned into a jumble of empty sounds. He didn't know what "corn" was, much less "sprout." I gave him some corn, had him, with the others, plant some, and helped each to measure the growth of this fast-growing plant every week. After the children had learned the little rhymes about the corn, they, as they often like to do, played them; each one acting the life of a plant. This boy enjoyed going with me to hoe these child-plants, gather the corn, cut the stalks and mass them into a corn-shock—which showed his imagination was developing. So quiet a play was not ordinarily attractive to his boisterous nature. But he was present during its growth, and so became interested, which proves the value of home-made plays. He formed a friendship at last, with a little boy who taught him to spin a top. I enlisted this interesting top-spinner, as an ally in class-work, and Sam succeeded in teaching him the circular motion with both hands in rolling clay, and then the two amassed wealth in making marbles.

The fact that kindergarten work demands the use of both hands and of the finger tips is of the greatest benefit to this child. After three months he used the finger ends of his right hand. His great perverseness stands much in the way of his development. To overcome his determination not to try to use his left hand, I named the fore-finger "Charlie," and he named the right fore-finger "Jim." Dialogues between these two fingers have so interested him in them objectively, that he forgets to refuse, and becomes interested in making "Charlie" help "poor, tired Jim." But the nerves of motion and sensation are plainly injured to some extent; and I should have no hope of their recovery, but that he has improved so much in the use of his right fingers. He can now use the quarter-inch beads, stringing correctly cube, cylinder, and ball in succession, and working at such simple occupations with interest for fifteen minutes at a time. He likes all the games, and that, of course, implies conformity to law and order. This conformity is evident, too, upon the play-ground, his outbursts of rage being less frequent and violent.

These children know nothing of the happy developing activity that we call play—for the aimless restlessness of the last mentioned child was not play, he had merely fought. It is true that "deep meaning often lies in childish play," but deep and very *sad* meaning lies in the fact that a child has never played.

These are not average specimens. They are the lower notes of an ascending scale, selected, because, but for the effect of kindergarten principles and appliances, they would have been returned to their homes as incapable of school education.

Most of these abnormal children will accept memory lessons with fatal ease. Before the kindergarten was introduced into the institution, one such child was taught to recite the bones of the head in rhyme. And that well-meaning teacher did not know that such work was as innutritive, as resultless as chewing gum! Shall we give these starving children the primer and the multiplication table? For bread, shall we give them worse than a stone?—for they might learn to play with that—shall we give them opium? The weak, helpless bodies must be strengthened by variety of use, the limp fingers made tense with intention, the feeble, wandering minds attracted, the whole nature roused and made happy.

The world is seeing now what the kindergarten can do for its natural children. The time is passing when men will look upon it as did a rich man some years ago, who, when asked to send his children to my kindergarten, exclaimed, "No! I can get my children *herded* all day for half the money!" But the world does not yet know what Frœbel can do for her defective, abnormal children. There is sore need of him in every school for the blind, for the deaf and dumb, for the feeble-minded. Who can equal him in teaching us how the natural, wise, and loving working of the humane upon these little ones, can make them human?

A story tells of some far embassy, dispatched to buy the favor of an Eastern king; and how the gifts they offered proved but dazzling dust shed from the ore-beds native to his clime.

"Shall the production of form out of unshaped stuff be art, and to evoke a *soul* from form be nothing?"

DISCUSSION.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, Wednesday, July 13, 1887.

The Department of Elementary Schools was called to order by the president, W. H. Bartholomew, of Louisville, Kentucky, at 2.30, P. M., in Farwell Hall.

Mr. Bartholomew explained that the part of the programme which promised an address by the president would not be carried out, as it had been thought best, on consultation with the president of the general Association, to have only two papers presented and have these fully discussed. Mrs. N. S. Williams of Catlettsburgh, Kentucky, then read a paper upon "Union of Oral Teaching and Book Teaching in the Several Grades," or "The Place and Function of Oral Teaching in Elementary Schools."

The following took part in the discussion which ensued:—J. M. Greenwood, Z. Richards, W N. Hailmann, Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, and Miss E. E. Curtis.

The time for the discussion of this paper having expired, the president introduced Dr. Nathan C. Schæffer, of Kutztown, Pennsylvania, who read a paper upon "Meaning and Limitation of the Maxim, 'We learn to do by doing,' in the Elementary Schools." The discussion was opened by Col. Francis W. Parker, Normal Park, Illinois.

At the close of his address there was a little good natured intellectual sparring between himself and Dr. Schæffer, but the substance of the faith of the second gentlemen is in his paper, and of the first in his remarks recorded elsewhere.

Mr. J. W. Holcombe, of Washington, D. C., moved that the chair appoint a committee of three upon the nomination of officers for this department, for the ensuing year. The chair appointed J. W. Holcombe, Washington, D. C., C. F. Palmer, Ohio, and T. P. McDonald, Nevada.

Although the hour was late and the afternoon warm, Mr. George E. Little, of Washington, D. C., held the delighted attention of the large audience with a short talk on "Illustrative Teaching," which was very ably illustrated with rapid crayon sketches.

The Department then adjourned to meet Friday, July 15th, at 3.30, P. M.

MINUTES OF SECOND SESSION.

The president called the Department to order at 3.30, P. M., Friday, July 15th. The reading of the minutes of the previous session was dispensed with. The president then introduced Robert Allyn, of Carbondale, Illinois, who read a paper upon "Importance of Religious Motives and Sanctions in Moral Training."

At the close of the reading of this paper, Leroy D. Brown, of Ohio, spoke of the excellence of the paper and of his hearty concurrence with most of the thoughts expressed in it, but asked to be excused from further discussion on account of the extreme heat of the afternoon and the lateness of the hour.

The president then called for the report of the committee on nominations. The report, which was unanimously adopted, is as follows:—For President, Leroy D. Brown, Ohio; for Vice President, Miss Agnes I. Rounds, Massachusetts; for Secretary, J. L. Lampson, Tennessee.

President Bartholomew then thanked all who had participated in the programme of the Department, and expressed his satisfaction with the work performed, and the Department then adjourned.

MARGARET W. SUTHERLAND,
Secretary.

then to allow others to apply these generalized statements to realms as diverse from the original field of observation as mind or spirit is from matter. The disciples in such cases always manifest the weaknesses in the system of their master. They rush in where he would have feared to tread. They push his language to extremes from which his deeper insight, broader vision, and larger experience would have caused him to shrink. As an instance, I might cite the example of Hegel and the two extreme wings of his followers. Comenius framed the maxim from the observation of bodily acts; some of his modern followers apply it to every form of human activity. Moreover, the original language has been twisted into a statement that sounds paradoxical. "We learn to do by doing." What can these words mean? If we *can* do a given thing, what need is there of learning to do that thing? And if we can not do the thing to be learned by the doing of it, how can any doing on our part issue in learning? Evidently the maxim in its modern form, if it is at all valid, must partake of the nature of a paradox, which, though seemingly absurd, is yet true in essence or fact. For the purpose of testing the validity of a paradoxical statement, I know no better way than to ascertain all its possible meanings, to eliminate those evidently not intended, and finally to investigate the one or more senses or interpretations that may legitimately be put upon the language.

In the first place, the maxim cannot mean that we learn to do by every kind of doing. The kind of doing by which the young man hoped to learn medicine and surgery was ridiculed centuries ago; no one in our day would advocate mere blind doing as a means of learning. The maxim must refer to doing guided by an intelligent will.

Again, the maxim cannot mean that we learn one thing by doing another. Here, as we have seen, the maxim has helped to inaugurate a better state of things by showing the absurdity of some of our methods of instruction.

There is a third limitation on the side of attention. How, for instance, is the art of writing acquired? It is undoubtedly true that a boy cannot learn to write without himself writing; but it is equally true that he is not always learning or improving in penmanship while he is practising with his pen upon paper. From the teacher or the copy the learner gets a concept of the letters to be made. The first efforts at imitation are fraught with defects. The pupil must clearly recognize wherein he failed and earnestly strive to remedy the defects, if the next effort is to be an improvement. The maxim, if applied to this process of learning, must mean that the pupil learns to do by continually doing as nearly as he can the thing to be done. With each step of progress, his knowledge of the form of the letters and how to make them becomes more accurate; or, in other words, his power and skill keep pace with his knowledge. Finally, the nerves and muscles which control the act of writing are properly co-ordinated; the habit of writing with ease is acquired; the process becomes largely sub-conscious, if not altogether automatic. The learner has at length reached the stage in which his attention is no longer concentrated upon the form and beauty of the letters, but rather upon the thought to be expressed, and it is quite possible that henceforth his chirography will grow more illegible, the more he writes. Of course he is now learning the art of composing by composing, but he has ceased to learn in the direction of improving his handwriting by writing, because the attention is riveted upon something else. Even before the sub-conscious stage is reached, practice if too long continued, may exhaust the powers of attention and the doing can then no longer issue in learning to do.

On the score of attention there is a limit to the application of the maxim in another direction. Talking, oral reading, and public speaking may be spoiled by too much attention to the manner of doing. Practice in these under the guidance of a teacher may serve to make the gestures too studied, the pronunciation too precise, and the tones of voice too artificial—defects by which the hearer's mind is drawn from the thought to the delivery. Much as I regret the lack of good elocutionary drill in my earlier years, I cannot help blaming the elocutionists for ruining one public speaker among my acquaintances. Under their tuition his gestures and articulation have become wellnigh immaculate, but there is such a self-conscious air about his platform efforts, that the audience can think of nothing except his delivery. By his efforts at doing he has learned most emphatically not to do. The same thing may happen in elementary instruction. Injudicious criticism by the teacher may so rivet the attention upon the utterance, that the pupils lose sight of the thought to be expressed, and the more they practise under his guidance, the worse their reading becomes. The vocal and physical elements in the act of reading or speaking should spring spontaneously out of the thought and sentiment to be conveyed. Any drill or practice which interferes with this natural connection between the mental and the physical is indescribably bad and should never be regarded as a means of learning.

Within these limitations on the side of attention we find a wide field for the application of the maxim to our efforts at learning to write, to talk, to walk, to play on a musical instrument, or to handle the tools of some handicraft. If questioned with reference to these and kindred activities, the physiologist would answer that the repeated action of the nervous elements in specific functions fits them the better to act in the same functions, and that the effect of the exercise of any function may be stored up so as to increase the facility of the nervous structure to exercise again every similar function. The psychologist would say that any normal act, performed under the guidance of an intelligent will, leaves as its enduring result an increased power to act and a tendency to act again in like manner. Common parlance, which is apt to enshrine its wisdom in proverbs, simply says: Practice makes perfect.

Here arises the question, Shall the maxim be limited to the physical side of our being? Or may it legitimately receive a wider application? We speak of mental action. Action is the Latin term for the Anglo-Saxon doing. Every distinct form of mental activity may be regarded as a species of mental doing. We learn to think by thinking, to remember by memorizing, to perceive what escapes the notice of others by cultivating habits of observation in special lines of work. Statements of a similar nature might be indefinitely multiplied. Nor would any proof be required to secure their acceptance. It is questionable, however, whether much is gained by formulating such truisms. A marked similarity between psychic and physical culture can not be denied; for with the exception of certain feelings of shame and of pleasure, which are dulled by being frequently called into play, it is as true of our intellectual and moral faculties as of our bodily powers, that strength, skill, and efficiency can only result from judicious exercise. In other words, as Dr. White aptly expresses it, "power and tendency are the abiding results of all psychical action." Nevertheless there are important differences between mental and manual training which should not be forgotten. In the former the act of learning is often completed with the acquisition of the idea; in the latter the idea which the apprentice gets from his master, must always be translated into action. Simple telling may inform us that alcohol intoxicates and that arsenic kills, it is unnecessary that any doing in the shape of experiment upon self or others, after the manner of the Spartans, should translate this knowledge into action. An intelligent will guides and presides over the movements of the hand during the learning of a trade. The mind's activity, on the contrary, is not directly controlled by any power outside of the mind itself. Thinking is very much like breathing; it goes on spontaneously; only at intervals does the will interfere to regulate the process. A strict parallel between the manner of learning a trade and the process of mental training is only to be found in cases in which intellectual acquisition is aided by manual acts like moulding, modelling and the handling of concrete objects. To draw a continent on the black board, and mould it in sand or putty, will greatly assist the mind in attaining an accurate knowledge of outline and structure. If now the maxim is to be applied to such cases, we must change our interpretation so as to make it mean that we learn to do intellectually by means of manual doing; in other words, we learn to do one thing by doing another. I suspect that a vague application of the maxim in this sense may have led to the introduction of a superabundance of manual and concrete work into some schools. At any rate, I heard of one Boston master who took his son from the schools of a neighboring town because he found that, with the amount of concrete work prescribed, his boy would get ready for Harvard entirely too late in life. It is indeed easy to find limitations to the maxim when applied in this way. An honored man from one of our large colleges declared that his *alma mater* had too much apparatus, that with fewer experiments his class would have learned more physics and chemistry. Similar mistakes are made in elementary schools. If a pupil is kept at manipulating objects when his mind should be dealing with abstract and general ideas and the symbols which stand for them, his progress is retarded and the road to learning is made more steep and rugged. I heard of a school whose pupils spent an entire winter upon concrete fraction work. At the end of a year's trial the teacher complained bitterly of her disappointment with the results. Had she studied the history of education sufficiently to become familiar with arithmetical calculations prior to the introduction of the arabic notation into Europe, she would have seen that she was keeping her pupils on a level with the barbarism of the early middle ages, and she would not have been surprised at the result. The use of concrete things to teach number and its operations, is an idea as old as the numeral frame; but when the manipulation of objects is allowed to usurp the legitimate place of figure work, it is a plain case of trying to get pupils to learn one thing by another.

The expiration of my allotted time prevents further investigation of the maxim. Its limitations and the various meanings of which it is susceptible forbid its recognition as a principle of pedagogy. Perhaps its advocates may accuse me of pressing their language "until it squeals," but if they wish to avoid misconstruction, instead of dealing in paradox and following vague ideals, they should adopt the rules on method prepared two centuries ago by Pascal, whose thinking was as clear as a crystal, and who never admitted terms in the least obscure or equivocal without defining them. In spite of the paradoxical form of the maxim, by reason of which it was well fitted to awaken thought and discussion, we should cordially thank those who brought it to the attention of our profession. It has not only helped to expose the folly of some of our methods of teaching, but also to place manual training in a new light. Even for the sake of the intellect, the hand deserves more training than it receives in our day. How many other reasons there are for training it to do! "When I think of all that man's and woman's hand has wrought," to quote the words of Professor Wilson, "from the day when Eve put forth her erring hand to pluck the fruit of the forbidden tree, to that dark hour when the pierced hands of the Savior were nailed to the predicted tree of shame, and of all that human hands have done of good and evil since, I lift up my hand and gaze upon it with wonder and awe."

What an instrument for good it is! What an instrument for evil! and all the day long it never is idle. There is no implement which it cannot wield, and it should never in working hours be without one. We unwisely restrict the term handicraftsman or hand-worker, to the more laborious callings; but it belongs to all honest, earnest men and women, and is a title which each should covet. For the queen's hand there is the sceptre, and for the soldier's hand the sword; for the carpenter's hand the saw, and for the smith's hand the hammer; for the farmer's hand the plough; for the miner's hand the spade; for the sailor's hand the oar; for the painter's hand the brush; for the sculptor's hand the chisel; for the poet's hand the pen; and for woman's hand the needle. And if none of these or the like will fit us, the felon's chain should be round our wrist, and our hand on the prisoner's crank. But for each willing man or woman there is a tool they may learn to handle; for all there is the command, "Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with all thy might." Divine revelation, human nature, and the necessities of practical life demand the harmonious training of hand and mind as aids to each other in well-doing and right-doing, and the teacher who neglects or abuses the child's impulses to do is a pedagogical sinner, whom I would advise to confess his short-comings and crave for pardon at the throne of the Great Teacher.

DISCUSSION.

Francis W. Parker, Normal Park, Ill. Human growth comes only by human activity. This activity is unconscious, physiologic, or organic; sub-conscious, a preparation for conscious activity, the results of conscious acts being automatic, conscious. Hence education with all three kinds of activity. The function of education is to bring about the conditions for conscious growth. Education is the fulfilling of God's design of changing being into character. The human being is latent energy organized and under laws. Laws are translated into actions; actions change latent energies into power. The function of the teacher is to bring about ideal conditions for development. A realization of this fact determines the course of study for the teacher.

All activity is doing. You are doing something, thinking. If thinking is not doing, what is it? The object I see and the states of consciousness succeed each other with wonderful rapidity. The state of consciousness is observation. Do I do when I observe? Symbols, oral language, arouse consciousness. This is hearing or listening. Books contain symbols that bring about a change in consciousness. The words change the state as in a good novel. As a good novel—thank heaven for such! When the state of consciousness is held, that is study. This holding constitutes the real difference between study and reading. Reading is thinking by means of words. There is an intensity in the holding of the thought in study. When I study, I do. "What shall I do to be saved?" I pray. I do something when I pray. Conscious mental activity leads to growth. We may have conscious states without growth. Intenseness gives strength. The teacher is to bring out all-sided growth. Character is a bundle of habits. A habit is a tendency to do from repeated acts. Each repetition is a doing.

Col. Parker said that he had never thought of drawing some of the marvellous conclusions that had been drawn by some of his friends; for instance, that we learn to teach by teaching. It is hardly worthy of men to draw such inferences. We learn to do by doing a great while before we enter the normal school. There is great force in the principle; it is a great interrogation, "What must be done?" What must be done to work out this child with life and soul? What must the child do? All things necessary for outworking of the child's own nature into power. It is a large question. Who knows how to answer it? Eye hath not seen what God has in store for those who study the child. After what comes when. When the mind is ready. There will be failure if a thing is done at the wrong time. Study the child. Study how. Every conscious act is to be brought by the mind into a healthy normal state. Best action every time. Always best pointing to better. When the child does best, he sees better. How? Without one bit of loss of strength. No effort should be wasted. Learn to read in the easiest way. No obstruction is to be placed in the way of the child. To-day points to to-morrow. You bend if you obstruct. Hence not straight to-morrow. Anything in the way of the child's action is wrong. The teacher chooses the conditions for mental and moral growth. The highest mental training you can give the child is the power to choose conditions; the highest moral, to teach child to give the best to others. You can only give what you have. One must never lose an opportunity. The saddest thing in education is a lost opportunity. We are every day brought face to face with the question, What particular mental power is developed by this study? What, for instance, by oral spelling? Is it good for the imagination? Does it enable the child to pass into the unknown? What does it do for the child's perception? reason? logic? What has the multiplication table to do with mental growth? The same questions repeat themselves. Everything comes to what must the child do. What is the purpose of doing? Progress. We are marching on. Our enemies are the pedants who never ask what to do for child. What advantage to know that Ponkapog is in Massachusetts? What time is taken by all the grand questions in geography! What shall I do for moral growth? moral power? There is nothing else to do for a child.

Is our work to be paid with per cents? Are we to be paid thus for working out salvation? These are the questions before us. What does it do? Teachers say, "There is an examination at the end of ten weeks." This means that ninety-five per cent. will surround the teacher with a halo of glory. In the meanwhile, where is the child? Essential thinking that leads to growth is doing. Think of the moral questions that centre about this truth. Think of the 61,000,000 persons in this country! The 25,000,000 from foreign lands since the war,—all crying, What must be done? Seek the truth with full heart, with prayerful heart. Give to the child the power to act forever, and thus save the country.

THE IMPORTANCE OF RELIGIOUS MOTIVES AND SANCTIONS IN MORAL TRAINING.

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I would have preferred, as a part of the title of this essay, the word necessity, a stronger term and one having definiteness, to the word "importance," a term of degree only. The precise word always carries measured force and delivers its stroke with a purpose. Besides, "training" is also vague, and may refer to an animal quite as properly as to a child. The epithet, "moral," relieves it of much of its mistiness, but, inasmuch as it also needs a definition to keep the full meaning before the mind, I venture to drop it, and substitute *for life.* I will add the word *children*, which specifically designates the subjects of the training. Thus my theme translates itself into The Necessity of Religious Motives and Sanctions in Training Children for Life.

Let a few words be defined, for much depends on having the same concepts in all our minds as we go forward. Motives are taken to be powers or forces lying behind, as in space, or going before, as in time, all human actions. They start, or tend to start and direct the activities of mankind. They are the promptings to labor and the directors of it. In this sense the word will be used. We do, however, often find the term motive used somewhat as we use the word reason. We ask, Why did you do that specific act? and receive for answer, my motive was a desire of gain or ease—whatever was the prompting impulse,—and we seem to think that we have not only stated the moving force behind the act, but that we have justified ourselves in the doing. This is hardly a motive. It is rather an argument. It is best to take the word motive in the sense of a spring or an impulse to action; a force—nervous, physical psychical, spiritual, social, moral, or religious—which urges toward a given line of conduct. It may be in the emotions, or affections, or instincts, or propensities, or desires, or choice, but still it pushes us onward.

Sanction is often used to signify that which binds or which makes holy or sacred. It fastens to or confirms and holds to a specific purpose. A motive pushes toward a particular course of conduct, a sanction renders that conduct holy or revered, and fixes or binds to it. A motive seems to drive us, a sanction appears before, drawing us to duty and then binds us there. It may also be a blessing or a benediction pronounced by a higher authority upon the work done, and thus it becomes the bond of a superior power, sent down to bind a soul to the task rightfully prescribed by an authorized government. It thus assumes legitimate control and commands. Its origin may be from the old Latin *sancire* which, to be a trifle fanciful, may be compounded from *sanum* and *scire*, to know the well or healthful, or "to bind to the sound." It is a part of the religious terminology, and is connected with that grand word religion itself, which has a similar meaning and signifies to bind backward or upward to something stable and acknowledged, assuming a power higher than human nature, and earlier than the present duty. It carries the idea of an old English poet:

"Unless, above himself he can
Erect himself, how mean is man."

He is a climbing plant, and needs something to rely on, or to wind about, or fasten to, and then he ascends. If any weight is to be raised it must be lifted by a force superior to it, or by some heavier material pushing itself under it. A balloon inflated with gas may lift a weight, but it has no foundation, and, of course, can only move as the medium which lifts it moves. So man, who is to move among his fellow-men as in a medium, requires a force to lift him, to bind him, and even a something besides his own nature or that of his kind to propel him.

We are now to inquire what are these prompting, binding, propelling forces or agencies, these motives and sanctions which men need to seek in order to find their true destiny, and which bind or oblige them to fulfil it? Man is to become self-directing in his conduct. By what motive is he to be impelled, and by what sanction shall he be bound to duty? Kant says: "Act always so that the immediate motive of thy will may become a universal rule for all intelligent beings." Let us assume this to be a safe direction, wise in itself and sure to lead, if acted upon, the race to peace and prosperity for all. In cases where every one voluntarily does what is right for all, how can anything but harmony result? There is harmony among the orbs of the universe, and peace too. Why? Because every one seeks only so much influence in the great systematic whole, as its weight and relative distance allow. Can disorder then occur? But is it not seen at once, as man has a free will, which he must guide by his own judgment, that such a rule of conduct demands infinite knowledge, or, at the least, an infinite capacity for knowing? Observe that the numbers of the human race living to-day are practically infinite. To count a million is a month's work for a rapid counter. Try to comprehend that sum, and then the sixty millions of our single nation, not to mention the billion and a half of the race. But each person in the long procession of the ages must be, at least originally, as dear to the Infinite Goodness and Love as every other one. Now the relations and consequently the duties growing out of these relations are practically infinite in each case. So we get substantially an infinity of personal duties multiplied by an infinity of individuals. If it is said that what is good for one in the short range of to-day is good for all in the long range of the ages, it is readily answered that we can only know this by experience and that demands time. That self-restraint is necessary is a truth that dawns on us only after we have seen the mischiefs of indulgence, and have been damaged thereby. Hence, we do need a wisdom greater than our own to instruct us, both in our relations and duties, before we err and get injured by trying.

Then there is a force or power not ourselves, Matthew Arnold says, which limits us and our activities on every side. Indeed, there are so many forces about us antagonistic to our wills, as to make us also practically helpless. Yet we must recognize and feel that we have a free will which does count for something in our activities and calculations. Conduct then, is to be guided by motives which are infinite, and must also have reference to independent agencies infinite in number and irresistible in power. We must, therefore, have regard to those considerations above us. Besides, the consequences of our actions affect not only ourselves and neighbors, but, indeed, often in an indirect manner, all the race. Thus, as conduct, "which is three-fourths of life," begins in motives springing from an infinity of causes and is enforced by sanctions which themselves reach out to infinity, it needs something like an infinite intelligence to guide it. Hence the necessity of religion in the sense commonly understood as instruction by an Infinite Wisdom, and accountability to an Infinite Authority of Love and Power.

Motives, for our present purpose, may be called instinctive, or such as impel by the unconscious activities or tendencies of the nature itself. These have to do also with the hereditary bent given the nature by the tastes, the habits, the desires, the occupations, and environments of ancestors sometimes very remote. Such are the love of life, of joy, of happiness, of action, and a disposition or set of the nature to follow what the family, the tribe, or the race has previously followed. A nomadic people, an unsettled one, a hunting tribe like the Tartars, or the Gypsies, or our Western Indians, are often moved to act so differently from the English or the Germans, the settled and learned peoples of the world, that we cannot comprehend them.

There are what may be termed the personal motives, growing out of the self-assertive nature which we all inherit. These may lead to selfish designs, and, if they grow strong, to the demand for our own interest which shall sacrifice everything to the individual good. The name egoistic, introduced by Mr. Herbert Spencer, would be a good one for this class; and while these more consciously seek our personal good and lead to self-preservation and even aggrandizement, they have an important place in the economy of directive activities. They regard in this line personal purity and temperance. They are sometimes opposed to, and sometimes supplemented by the altruistic or social motives, which prompt us to look after and promote the welfare of others, because we naturally do delight to be surrounded by happiness, and because we are ourselves able to rise higher when surrounded and aided by the intelligent, the cultivated, and the mighty. These motives are social and spring from our love of association, and they bind us one to another in a brotherhood of prosperity and improvement.

Higher than these are the moral motives, not always readily marked as distinct from the social ones. They regard the conduct of life on the plane of the good, the right, and the just, and appeal to us to be honest, faithful, and considerate to the least as well as to the greatest of our fellow-beings. These also regard what was named a moment ago personal purity and temperance, that we may not be examples of baseness, nor tempters of the innocent. These motives—not to enumerate them—extend to all mankind and embrace all of our humanity in all time, and if we as individuals could grow to a sufficient knowledge, and impartiality, to a state of self-restraint noble enough to inspire and bind us, to nerve and ennoble us at all times, we might, perhaps, stop here. But still we do have a relation to a something above us and mightier than we, and if we would rise to our highest we must fasten the machinery which raises us to the very highest. A pulley must be fastened above the point to which it seeks to hoist its load. So when we would raise all mankind to the loftiest we must fix our point of attachment above all humanity. The most humanizing and instructive of all the early legends of saints, in my opinion, is that of the giant St. Christopher. He rejoiced to be a servant, and made it all his aspiration to be directed by and to labor for another. But he determined to serve only the highest and mightiest.

We must be influenced, moved, ruled, if you please, by motives. Let them be the highest. The evolution theory says let these be law, and it spells the word with a small letter. The humanitarian or utilitarian says let love for your kind control you, and spells that word also with a little letter. And both when they personify their ruling words, designate them by that poorest, vaguest, most indefinite, irresponsible, and meanest of all the personal and representative pronouns, the little insignificant *it*. If we will join intelligence to power and bring Law into our system of governance, if we will add authority to kindness and bring Love into our plan of progress, we must bow to a person somewhere who originates and controls, who enacts law, and requires obedience, and we must give to the name by which we know him a capital letter, and whether we call him the Unknown, the Unknowable, the Absolute, the Infinite, Jehovah, Jove, or Lord and God, we must represent him by the virile and creative pronoun *He*, with a large letter. We then find a basis for authority, accountability, and command. All else is narrow and selfish, shifting and transitory, and makes might and opportunity rulers of the universe. Or it is an attempt to give the control of the large destinies of mankind into the direction of ignorance, inefficiency, and caprice. What man wants—guidance, strength, and stability—he can no more find within himself in the requisite degree, than a mote in the sunbeam can gather to itself the gravity of a star, or the power of a sun in a system.

The theory that binds man by all these high motives and divine sanctions, and links him to his Maker and to the grand brotherhood of the races and ages, has stability and infallibility. The ages have kept it from eternity and futurity cannot exhaust it. Intelligence that sees the end from the beginning has arranged it, and the sleepless vigilance of Omniscence is pledged to maintain its unwasting fullness. What but such a Universal Power or Spiritual Wisdom is able to restrain arrogant selfishness, rampant lust, and towering ambition? This can be brought into the secret chamber of deliberation in every man's breast, and will follow him every moment in every place, not a watchful detective or a distrustful spy, a vengeful enemy or an unpitying judge, but a helpful, older brother, or an instructive father, or a tender mother, or a loving sister, to advise him, to warn him, to control him, and to build him up in all goodness and purity, in all strength and divine nobility.

A brilliant writer in a recent article in a popular magazine says: "Man is merely a fact." So he is. But he is a fact which thinks, and enjoys, and wills, a fact held to a strict accountability; and he must keep himself in the line of march which another has appointed. Obedience is his prescribed duty and his sphere of safety. And I say, out upon any theory and particularly upon any practice that makes man less than a living power under the strictest authority—which calls him a fact only, and gives him up to fate! Let man feel that he is force and cause, and is bound to keep the peace of the universe as against himself and all lawlessness, and he is worth studying, and teaching, and guiding, and binding with religious motives and sanctions. Anything less than this makes him weaker than a straw and cheaper than the dirt that buries him, and I have no patience with any literature or science which *de*personates the Most High God and represents him by that driveling, indefinite epithet and expletive—*it*.

Such, as I conceive them, are the motives and the sanctions needed to aid us in duty, and to bind us to the service of our fellow-men, to impel us to right conduct and to bind us in allegiance to truth and nobleness. But children cannot comprehend them. Neither can any man do it fully. Have we not said they are infinite. We can in part, at least, apprehend them, and we do feel, if we cannot understand the infinity about us, so that it carries us to a mount of clearer vision and more aspiring resolve, and enables us to know more than mere perception by the senses, or the dim inferences of reason, and to do more than the feeble attempts of human power or even than the forces of nature, mighty as they are. We, as teachers, therefore, cannot do much to instruct our little pupils in these sublime truths. But one thing we can and must do. We must conform our characters and conduct to such motives and sanctions as have been spoken of in this essay. Especially may we hold to and live by the doctrine of Goethe, suggested in that comprehensive plan of education developed in "Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship." He insists on what he calls the three Reverences as the first habit to be formed, as well as the first lesson to be learned. The child is first taught reverence for all below him and inferior to him, then reverence for all around him and equal to him, and finally reverence for all above him and superior to him, and it involves an unhesitating obedience. This must be one of the constant aims of the teacher to instill reverence; for the irreverent man or child is the most unlovely and least promising of all persons who work in the great line of developing the race and its capacities for, as Milton has it, "all the offices of peace and of war." The holiest and the noblest thing on which we work is childhood, with its implicit trust and confidence; and if neither we nor the family into which it is born, nor the world, which must receive it, willing or not, never deceived it nor required an unjust thing, how easily it might grow to almost implicit obedience to truth and right. If we were what men and women ought to be, we might lead this little one as we pleased, and make it to continue in its nobleness of innocence, until it should develop almost into a noble omnipotence by its complete obedience to all law. For among men, as Bacon has said, we only gain power by obeying nature in all things. We then can obey. We can admit these motives and sanctions which take hold of the Infinite Truth and Love into our hearts and enthrone them there and give them the control of us. We can first be truthful, honest, and just. We can at least show that we do believe that it is always safe and always best for the interests of all pupils and teachers and all men, to obey these laws and abide the consequences. We can in the next place aid all to be such as the law demands, and encourage them to assist every one in truth telling, honest dealing, and just acting. These are qualities of an educated manhood, of more importance to the individual and to the world than any quickness in figures or any accuracy in speech, than any familiarity with physical phenomena or mathematical formulae, than skill in manipulating chemical equivalents or astronomical instruments, than any knowledge of history and literature, or any ingenuity in constructing and applying logical doctrines. They are the highest wisdom, and they must finally, if the race is to live in peace and grow in prosperity, become foundations, principles of the soul, wrought into the unconscious habits of the life, universally recognized and universally practiced.

How can teachers do this? Let us repeat. There are two lines for all teaching, precept, and practice. Both the old and the new education, in learning lessons and in forming character, and in guiding conduct, emphasize them and insist on their practice till the nature has hardened into habit. Unless the inexperienced are told, or instructed in the specific things which the world accounts right and wrong, how can they know them? Let them try for themselves says one, and thus learn by doing. Aye. But the doing of a wrong thing weakens the nature and begets a habit of wrong doing difficult to overcome, and, of course, so far unfits for the doing of the right. There is a necessity then not only for the giving of information, but for the restraint of authority and the control of experience, until something of knowledge is gained and something of self-guidance has been produced. Specific ideas taught, and specific actions performed under the direction of wisdom and skill will speedily lead to generalized ideas or to classified knowledge of the right and the wrong. The child is first to do because he is told and sees his superiors doing the same. Then come general principles, and he does because he knows and desires to do the right and noble thing, and is under the control of motives, drawn by sanctions; the highest and most enduring. It is a pretty long road and often a pretty thorny one, by which an infant is lead to learn the abstract idea, cleanness. Good hereditary predisposition, and intercourse, with a clean family—unvarying examples—will lead to it. So of truth telling. The example is first and best, but words are profitable. The environments so effect the unsuspicious, fearless little one, that it ought to be a hard and an unfrequent case to find a lying child. A lying man in a world of liars may not be an unexpected phenomena. But a lying child, just from the great unknown mysteries of honest love and holy trustfulness, ought to be a thing accounted monstrous. The teacher's problem—and it ought to be the parent's problem too, and the problem of the race as well—is to keep that child truthful to the end. How will you do it? This line cannot be dropped here without saying that in this whole affair of morality and vice, of virtue and wrong, of truth, honesty, and justice, of falsehood, fraud, and iniquity, the family should be held to the strictest account. The school is an important factor, more however, because of the great space and the marked attention it gets from our educational writings and theories, than because of the time and means given to it. But the family and the family life, precepts and examples, are the grand formatives of the character, and we must emphasize them, and demand every day the discipline and the instruction of the home, its associations, its plays, its trials, and its business. But our duty as teachers is with the school almost alone, and we are to make that and hold ourselves accountable for it. And this school which we are overseeing and directing is to train—not solely to teach—for life, its labors, its cares, and duties. Too often do we train for recitations, for examinations, for per cents., for promotions, for exhibitions—anything else than for life and destiny—sound, honest, pure, and loving, self-sacrificing, self-controlling, and noble souls. For life we train—not for society, or for business, or for duty even, but to make men and women fit to control a world of the mightiest affairs, and to fill the universe with beauty and joy. To be sure we shall work best when we give our whole energies to the immediate attention, to the little details of the grand plan which we have in general adjusted to the grand design assumed as the end of all. Let the details be done as unconsciously of any thing beyond, as the rain is unconscious of anything but falling, as the sunshine of anything but flying on the wings of the illimitable ether, and our work will be mightest. But, after all, any school work that looks not beyond the school itself—the salary and the reputation to come from it, the day's orderly movements and recitations—will fall infinitely short of accomplishing what mankind need.

First, let us work in harmony one with another, and with the best tendencies of our environment, and let us insist that our scholars do the same among themselves. Let our own examples be correct and let our whole bearing and conduct show by unostentatious honesty, that we believe every word we utter and are willing to test our whole conduct by death or life if need be, and we shall be daily making consciences in the souls intrusted to us, and thus shall we determine them to shun evil, and to follow the right. An additional idea that should not be neglected is that not a wrong thing can be concealed. By the eternal nature of things it is self-revealing. As well may you throw a pebble into a lake and expect that waves will not start and circle to the shore, or strike a light in the sky and think that the ether will not vibrate to its rays, as to do a wrong deed and hope to keep it a secret. The Great Infinite knows it. "All things are naked and open to the eyes of Him with whom we have to do." Then the doer himself knows it, and must carry that knowledge in his memory forever. Sometimes it may slumber, but everything will knock at the chamber of the brain, and who can tell when the consciousness of the guilty deed may be roused to be a tormenter. Besides, the consequences do not stop with the act. They affect others and for all time. Chiefly, however, do they live in the soul of the wrong-doer. They damage his whole nature and from their power there is no escape. He is to live daily with that nature, and if it is made mean, deceitful, selfish, lying, it is to be his companion, his bed-fellow; and it will certainly be his tyrant. What a terrible thing then to be a mean man, and to grow in meanness daily. Here is the worst fact of all. The life becomes full of guilt and is ruled by it, is a slave driven by a lash wielded by his own vicious nature and degraded lower and lower forever.

It is not, of course, expected that a teacher will often state in words his belief in God, or this doctrine of the eternal infamy of wrong-doing. He can, however, make it sure that he believes that right will live and wrong will die, that honest living will get a reward and harm will come from fraud, as surely as grass will spring from a healthy sward when spring rains and sunshine touch it. He should, nevertheless, feel the force of these higher motives and sanctions which we call religious, and live as if he breathed in a wider sphere and were inspired by a higher life than this little every-day round of daily business. His example is nearly all that will be required, and it should be living, vital to impart warmth and new life to every life it touches. What is called "preaching" will answer no good end. A right-living force he must be among the pupils and must be an inspiration by his silent power and not by talk.

Three specific rules may close this essay. First, make yourself truthful and honest, and make others the same by example chiefly. Second, insist so far as in you lies that others shall demand truth and honesty in all with whom they associate, and shall honor these qualities wherever they are seen. And third, discountenance all fraud and lying, and assist all authority to suppress it and to reveal the offenders to themselves, and if need be, to the officers of justice. Then will there be less antagonism between teachers and pupils, for all will be striving to be noblest and to lead all others up to the highest standard of nobleness.

And finally, if a teacher wishes to be supreme in his school and in the world, he must be like the Saint Christopher, named before, and learn to serve only the Highest and the Wisest and the Mightiest. And he will find that wisest and mightiest only when he listens to the voice of the little child crying for help in the raging storms of this world and runs to his relief. And when he lifts that little one to his shoulder he will find the weight and burden of the world's Savior laid upon him. But if he is brave and bears that burden with all his human force, he will himself be carried through the angry stream and the furious storm to the shore; and if he will then plant his teacher's rod in the barrenest soil, it will blossom into eternal roses for his crown.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT

—OF—

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, July 13, 1887.

The department was called to order by Vice-President Henry L. Boltwood, who reminded those present that the department was founded a year ago, and was accordingly now holding its first formal session. He further emphasized the fact that the scope of this department is the work of the high school and of the academy, as distinct from the grammar school on the one hand and the college on the other.

Mr. A. F. Nightingale, of Lake View, Illinois, then presented a paper, entitled "A Plea for the Classics." Upon motion, it was decided to postpone discussion until after the presentation of Miss Clark's paper. Miss Minne C. Clark, of Somerville, Massachusetts, then read a paper on "Some Thoughts on English." There was an animated discussion of the foregoing papers by Messrs. Winship, of Boston, Lewis, of Lockport, Sprague, of Racine, Jones, of Memphis, E. W. Coy, of Cincinnati, Greenwood, of Kansas City, Riley, of Aurora, Smith, of Rockford, Montgomery, of Mississippi.

The following resolution was then offered by Mr. A. R. Sprague, of Racine:

Resolved, That in the opinion of this department, the English language should be given at least an equal place with that of the classics and science, in high school courses of study.

The resolution was unanimously adopted. Department adjourned.

PAUL H. HANUS,
Secretary.

SECOND SESSION.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, July 14, 1887.

Department called to order by Vice-President Boltwood, at 2.30 P. M. Minutes of the preceding day's session read and approved. President Boltwood then announced the nominating committee, consisting of Mr. Charles A. Smith, of Rockford, Illinois, Miss Minne C. Clark, of Somerville, Massachusetts, and Mr. E. W. Wright.

Mr. Samuel Thurber, of Roxbury, Massachusetts, then read a paper on "The Order and Relation of Studies in the High-School Course." The reading of this paper was followed by a long and interesting discussion, by Messrs. James H. Baker, of Denver, Colorado, James M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Missouri, A. R. Sprague, of Racine, Wisconsin, Cope, of Hamilton, Ohio, Stratton, of Davenport, Iowa, Miss Judd, of Chicago, Lewis, of Lockport, New York, Miss Margaret Sutherland, of Ohio, Wooster, of Kansas, H. L. Boltwood, of Evanston, Illinois, Miss Minne C. Clark, of Somerville, Massachusetts, A. E. Curtis, of Adrian, Michigan. and Cox, of Michigan.

The following resolution was then offered by Mr. Curtis, and Mr. Cox, of Michigan:

Resolved, That the executive committee be requested to invite a committee to report a general course of study for high schools, at the next annual meeting of this Department. Said course of study is to express the complete function of the high school.

Resolution adopted.

Mr. A. F. Nightingale, of Lake View, Illinois, then offered the following resolution which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Department of Secondary Instruction be extended to Vice-President Boltwood, for the pleasing and agreeable manner in which he has presided over its deliberations.

The committee on nomination of officers then reported as follows:

For President—Samuel Thurber, of Boston, Massachusetts.

For Vice-President—A. F. Nightingale, of Lake View, Illinois.

For Secretary—Paul H. Hanus, of Denver, Colorado.

CHARLES A. SMITH, }
MINNE C. CLARK, } Committee.
E. W. WRIGHT, }

Report adopted. Department adjourned.

PAUL H. HANUS,
Secretary.

THE CLAIMS OF THE CLASSICS.

A. F. NIGHTINGALE, LAKE VIEW, ILLINOIS.

I approach the treatment of this much-discussed question with a feeling akin to that which one has when he stubbornly defends a principle which he knows to be right, but which policy and the spirit of utilitarianism warns him to abandon. I approach it with pride, because no part of my life since boyhood has been estranged from these studies, and because it has been my leading ambition, as a teacher, to inspire boys and girls with a love for the classics, as the first and greatest factor in that education which I believe to be at once the most practical, the most useful, and the most pleasurable.

In this paper I shall enter into no controversy with that *fetich*, the Honorable Charles Francis Adams, Jr., whose words with many are apparently so oracular, and yet whose arguments, were it not for his name and fame, would fall unnoticed among the debris of still-born literature; nor shall I assume to mitigate the electric shock produced by the fulminations of President Eliot, of Harvard, who has succeeded in leaving one small back-door ajar, through which a pupil may, after wearisome meanderings, enter that university without either Latin or Greek. Neither shall I attempt the fruitless effort to apologize for the great city of Chicago, which would do little for the classics, and which has excluded Greek entirely from her public school system.

I know that Latin and Greek are now placed upon the defensive. No less a writer than John Stuart Blackie has said, "Greek is to be extruded from the English universities; at least, that badge of privilege is to be torn from its breast which has for so many years given it a secure position in the palæstra where the youth of Great Britain have been trained to the highest functions of intellectual manhood; times are changed, and we must change with them; new circumstances have arisen; new tasks are to be performed; new tools are to be provided; new training is necessary." In our American colleges, per force of public opinion, Greek, fighting with tenacity every inch of its retreat, has been compelled to take a subordinate position. Harvard, Cornell, and Michigan universities are offering such courses of study as not only tend to multiply their students, but which will, we fear, give renewed force to the modern idea of belittling the claims of the classics. Once the question was one-sided, and no one pretended that Latin and Greek could be eliminated from true scholarship. Now we are on debatable ground, and the friends of sound learning are called to defend a fortress once regarded as impregnable, but now deemed vulnerable. The arguments against the classics are potent, pungent, and plausible. We must treat them with the dignity that their authorship demands, and yet, if possible, turn upon their authors the burnished steel of their own weapons; or, admitting the force of their arguments, present others so incalculably stronger as to leave no room for doubt on which side the scale must turn.

On the very threshold of our investigation we are convinced, with no disposition to contravene the logic, that the classics are not necessary for what may be termed the selfish utility of ordinary existence. We are not called upon to speak or to write in the vernacular of these tongues; the amount of actual knowledge with which they supply us, to answer the positive demands of any calling in life, is by no means commensurate with the time and labor expended in their acquirement; and lastly, experience proves that the students in our high schools and colleges can at best only look a little way down into the unfathomable depths, and only appreciate the merest modicum of the transcendent beauty and unparalleled power of these dead though living languages. If these things be true, shall we encourage our children to devote two-thirds of their preparatory course and one-third of their college training to these studies? This system of education, if it stands, must stand on its own merits; no stolid veneration for the past, as past; no amount of genuflexions at the altars of the ancient, as ancient, will cause the arrest of any logically supported innovation of commerce, religion, or education in the world's to-morrow. The obelisks of Egypt have joined the itinerancy, and the all-absorbing cry in the march of events now is, "Old things have passed away." We are, therefore, brought face to face with the question, Are the claims of the classics for the first place in a finished practical education capable of being unanswerably defended? We maintain that they are, and that no other system yet devised, or devisable, can, for general excellence, successfully compete with the classical.

Education is two-fold in its nature; there are general training and special training. By general training we mean the development of all the faculties of the mind; the unfolding of our entire nature, the burnishing of every weapon that God has placed in the arsenal of the brain; the germination, the budding, the blossoming, and the harvesting of the fruitage of every seed with which God has impregnated the human mind as it comes fashioned from his hand. By special training we mean that technical knowledge which is essential to the performance of certain specific functions in life, as the manipulation of the tools of a trade,—for instance, the business of a carpenter, or the keeping of debits and credits, and the making out of the balance sheet in business, the office of an accountant. Of these two departments, which may almost be termed the culture of the intellect and the training of the hand, or the furnishing of material which makes character, and the skill which may produce bread and butter—of these two, the general far transcends in importance the special; it is not only incomparably superior to it in point of comparison, but it is in a large measure the antecedent cause which makes success in specific callings possible.

We do not propose in this discussion to measure out the proportion of general and special training essential to a perfect system of education,—we simply say, in passing, that the impartation of technical knowledge is, to a large extent, beyond the pale of those limits by which the functions of the public school are, or ought to be, circumscribed.

We do not teach a boy the battles of the civil war, that he may the better know how to handle a breech-loading rifle to shoot rebels with, in the possible contingencies of the future. We do not teach a boy geography that he may know where to purchase a ticket, or what road to take to go from Chicago to St Louis. We do not teach him arithmetic that he may know to what extent in percentage he is gambling, if he buys wheat at one dollar a bushel, hoping he may sell at "one dollar three," without ever seeing the wheat. We do not teach algebra and geometry, botany and chemistry, for the technical facts contained in the formula and proofs of the mathematics, or the nomenclature of the physical sciences. We teach them all that we may prepare the boy for the possibilities of manhood; that he may the better perform the functions of true citizenship, advance civilization, improve society, make life more secure, property safer, and liberty more stable. It is the imparting of this general knowledge, the development of this general culture, the laying of foundations for true moral and intellectual manhood, that make the common school, the high school, and the state university legitimately sustainable from the public treasury.

Having, by the briefest process, laid down the premise that general education, with the special, but rather than the special, is the duty of the public school, it is our province now to prove the conclusion to which we come, that, for the acquirement of this education, the Latin and Greek languages are the most efficient appliances which can be used.

OPINIONS OF EDUCATORS.

First. The educators and the educated are the strongest supporters of a classical education. We must judge largely of the value of any commodity by the testimony of those best acquainted with its ingredients and the result of its application. If our babe were dangerously sick, we would not, for we would be self-chargeable with murder, trust to our own skill in the manipulation of medicines for its relief, nor would we put him into the hands of a tyro or a quack in medicine, but we would call the most skilful physician our means would allow, or even a consultation of the best physicians obtainable by telephone or telegraph, and trusting implicitly in their knowledge and experience, would believe, if the child died, that it was inevitable or, if he lived, that 'it was due to their professional skill. If we had a difficult and important question to be solved by the department of justice, and much depended upon the points of law to be deduced, and the precedents of court decisions, we would not put the case into the hands of the parasitical shysters that infest our cities, but we would rather select some eminent attorney, skilled in jurisprudence, who knew how to ravel the mysteries of law, and, relying upon his judgment, would rest the case, confident that all its righteousness would be made plain to judge and jury. We are always willing, or ought to be willing, to defer to the opinions of those whom we acknowledge know more than we do, and it is far more probable that we should hold erroneous opinions on subjects of which we know little, than that they should be mistaken, who, from long study, investigation, and experience, are recognized as authority on these same subjects. If we would study biology in its advanced theories, we go to Haeckle; if astronomy, to La Place or Le Verrier; in chemistry, to Liebig; in physics, to Tyndall and Helmholtz, and such lights as these, in the firmament of science. May we not be equally convinced of the value of classical study by the great thinkers and writers of every age, of both hemispheres? But, you say, the laws and facts of physical science are demonstrable. Proof is deducible with mathematical precision. So we say the influence of the classics upon the growth of intellect is equally deducible. There is a logical exactness which mathematics impart; a beautiful culture which modern languages afford; a love for investigation, discovery, and experiment which the sciences give; but above all and including all, there is a purer, stronger discipline, which the knowledge of the classics guarantee.

Were it possible in the space of one article, we might classify the opinions of eminent men upon this question, but we will only briefly quote from a few, gathered from different sources.

A letter received from President Hurlbut, of Middlebury college, a man who stands eminent among the classical scholars of the country, says: "We are disposed to deplore the injury done to high education by dropping the classics, as is the modern fashion." Dr. Porter, the author of the "Philosophy of the Human Intellect," and the venerable ex-President of Yale college—God bless him!—a man who, with his keen stiletto, has pricked the bubble of the "new education," and, by the sternness and sturdiness of his logic, has done more than any other to produce an ebb in the tide of public opinion against the classics, says: "The controversies of the past few years, in respect to humane and literary studies, have established the conviction, beyond question, that there is no substitute for classical culture." Lord Macaulay, whose essays are an inspiration to every scholar, says, in speaking of the disciplinary power of the classics: "We believe that men who have been engaged up to one or two and twenty in studies which have no immediate connection with the business of any profession, and of which the effect is merely to open, invigorate, and to strengthen the mind, will generally be found, in the business of every profession, superior to men who have at eighteen or nineteen devoted themselves to the especial studies of their calling." Bonamy Price, writing on Greek and Latin in the *Contemporary Review*, says: "The opportunities, the demands for reasoning in a real and sound study of the classics are absolutely endless, and in no field has a teacher such a range for forcing his disciples to think closely and accurately; . . . and I confidently assert that for the purpose of making a youthful student think long and accurately, and of forcing upon him the perceptions of the efficiency and results of right reasoning, no better tool can be applied than a speech in Thucydides, a discussion in Aristotle, or a chapter in the epistles of St. Paul." Prof. Swing, that eloquent martyr to fossilized Calvinism, in his scholarly reply to the dastardly attack of the notorious Richard Grant White upon the public school system, says: "That old teacher,"—referring to the learned Rabbi Gamaliel, in his instruction of Paul,—"that old teacher combined morals and language, piety and literature, uprightness and Greek, and, if there be a better system of education, the world has not found it, nor come any where near making its discovery." When any one differs from the conclusions of these men and such as these, it behooves him to examine well the grounds of his dissent, for whatever has the weight of their authority behind it, has therein a strong presumption in its favor.

But let us pass from the conviction of isolated cases, for the opposition will argue that proofs just as weighty, and far more convincing, since they proceed from the standpoint of the useful and the practical, are deducible in favor of making mathematics and the sciences more than an equivalent substitute for the classics. Mathematics, some one proclaims, are the foundation of the throne of God. Scientists, the scintillations of whose genius shoot upward, emanating from the spark of divinity in human intellect, "as they nightly assault the skies" to ascertain the relations of the burning world above to our own planet, or to obtain the unconditional surrender of some obstinate asteroid or star of the tenth magnitude, or as they delve into the earth to unlock the hidden treasures which God has buried there for the genius of the nineteenth century to reveal, confidently proclaim that the displacement of Greek by physical science is the harbinger of a new era in civilization and culture. And yet, when I hear these men whose ability to argue against the classics comes from a study of the classics in their earlier years, I think of the words which Shakespeare puts into the mouth of Brutus:

> "But 'tis a common proof,
> Lowliness is young ambition's ladder
> Whereto the climber-upward turns his face;
> But when he once attains the upmost round,
> He then unto the ladder turns his back,
> Looks in the clouds, scorning the base degrees
> By which he did ascend."

Allowing isolated testimony for or against the classics to go for what it is worth, let us turn to facts. Although it is true, lamentably true, that during the last five, yea, twenty-five years, a score of articles has been written to prove that the sciences should have preference over the Greek, and that even the Latin should be shorn of its power, where one has been written to sustain the classics; and although much unfortunate opinion has been manufactured thereby, nevertheless, not one respectable college in the United States has entirely furled the standard of the classics, or lowered it from the pinnacle where it has blown to the winds since the Pilgrims established Harvard, in 1636. The highest academical honors are everywhere, if possibly we may be compelled to except Harvard, given only to classical students.

The only perceptible influence that the clamor for science has gained has been that colleges have introduced a multitude of new courses, and allowed students to more generally follow their inclinations and tastes, and what they regarded as the dictates of necessity. Some restrictions were placed upon Harvard and Michigan in the earliest part of this article; but in justice to these institutions it should be said that Harvard requires for admission *in maximum*, as much Latin and Greek as most colleges demand at the end of the freshman year; and the professors of Michigan told me quite recently, that at no time in the history of that institution were the classics so strongly intrenched as at present, and that many young men, influenced to enter without Greek, were of their own accord commencing its study under .private tutors, self-convinced that the demands of true scholarship, as well as those for the highest degree, required at least an elementary knowledge of the Greek, and all this in the face of the fact, that for many years, a very large percentage of the State money has been expended to build up and make enticingly attractive the technical schools of that eminent State university. With a statement from the Honorable George P. Marsh, scholar, writer, and politician, graduate of Dartmouth, author of "Lectures on the English Language," for many years representative in Congress, and still later minister to Italy, we close the argument for the classics drawn from the fact, that a majority of the best educators still sustain them, and that all the colleges make them the most important factors in their highest curriculum of study. Mr. Marsh says—"I do but echo the universal opinion of all persons competent to pronounce on the subject, in expressing my own convictions, that the language and literature of ancient Greece constitute the most efficient instrument of mental training ever enjoyed by man, and that a familiarity with that wonderful speech, its poetry, its philosophy, its eloquence, and the history it embalms, is incomparably the most valuable of intellectual possessions."

THEY ARE LANGUAGES.

The second argument to which we invite your attention is, Latin and Greek are languages.

Language is the key that unlocks all human thought, and gives voice to all human aspirations. No one will deny that there is nothing which gives a man so much power, such delicate poise in society, such pleasure in reading, such magnetism in attracting the attention of the multitude, such force in wielding and shaping the convictions of men, as the correct and easy flowing use of words.

Words, metaphysically speaking, may not be thought, but they are the only media by which thought finds expression; they are ammunition in the battery of intelligence; they are steam in the engines of thought; they are true coin in the exchange marts of scholastic culture; a man without words is like a beautiful ship launched upon the welcome bosom of the sea without a pilot. We cannot write a sentence, formulate a thought, read a book, without a comprehension of the force of the words we propose to use, or which we are endeavoring to transfer from the mind of another to our own. The grave question is, whence comes the language of pathos and persuasion, of poetry and philosophy, of æsthetics and science, which our own English language has so bountifully borrowed from the unpatented forms of other tongues? The answer is truly a grave answer, for this language, in its multifarious forms and its transcendent power, comes from the tomb of those dead languages whose disembodied spirits still walk abroad, inspiring the pen of every writer, and the tongue of every speaker. An extended study of the grammar and lore of the Latin and Greek above all other studies gives to men the mastery of our own beautiful language, and a keener love for our own expanding literature.

The study and mastery of the classics is the seed-sowing, of which the after pursuit of English and general literature is the bountiful harvest.

Latin and Greek are the international arsenals out of which men in all ages and in all lands have taken the weapons of words, which, in the future even more than in the past, will make the tongue more potent than armies, and the pen mightier than the sword.

There is one ever-present argument which business men love to roll as a sweet morsel under their tongues, viz.: college students so soon forget their Latin and Greek, that they can be of but little practical value. But these men do not realize the analogy that exists between mind and matter. The seed we sow amid the sunshine and showers of spring must waste, and rot, and die; but in the resurrection of autumn time we have the blossom and the fruitage, some thirty, some sixty, some an hundred fold. We may forget the import of even the very characters of the Greek language which we study in the spring-time of life, but in the resurrection of manhood's maturity we have an intellectual culture as certainly and as mysteriously the result of youthful study, as the full corn in the ear of the October harvesting is the result of the kernel dropped in the April sowing.

THE ANCIENT VERSUS THE MODERN LANGUAGES.

But some one may say, We admit the argument concerning the power of words, but do not the modern languages furnish the same skill in the manipulation of speech, and at the same time present a practical value which the ancient do not? A thorough student of both would not ask the question. We are the more convinced of this since we read an article in one of our metropolitan journals some time since, which so sadly failed in its attempt to establish this point.

The modern languages do not, cannot connect us with ancient life, its laws, its art, its eloquence, its civilization, the basis of all modern progress. They only treat of modern life; they only tell us the story of our own times, or of the times in which those akin to us lived; they are more facile of acquisition than the classics, and therefore do not in the same measure develop that mental muscle which comes through rigorous exercise of thought and diligent, toilsome application. "A Greek or Latin sentence," some one has said, "is a nut with a strong shell concealing the kernel—a puzzle demanding reflection, adaptation of means to end, and labor for its solution, and the educational value resides in the shell and in the puzzle." We cannot say this of living languages; they are learned, as is much of music, by ear; they come partly by absorption, and do not require the tenacious grip of mental exertion. They are studied principally for purposes of conversation in the original; they give us no extended vocabulary; they do not furnish the key that unlocks the treasures of that thought and philosophy which enter so largely into the possibilities of our civilization. To be sure they have commercial values, but, as we said in the outset, we are not arguing for what many (though falsely we think) call a useful, practical, selfish education. We are speaking for general culture; for the acquirement of those intellectual possessions which are the guarantee of strong government; the hope of free institutions; the secret of respect, happiness, contentment, which come not through sordid gains in the marts of business, but in the ability to write, to speak, to read, to think, to move our fellow-men, and lift the world to a higher plane of thought and investigation. And where can one acquire that ability so perfectly, as by reading in the original those literatures which contain the essence of all modern thought, law, art, philosophy?

The abrogation of Greek as a compulsory subject in one of the English university examinations is thus deprecated strenuously by *The Saturday Review.* "Our own opinion is," it says, "that so far from having too much Greek in English education, we have not nearly enough of it. Greek and Latin enjoy a just prerogative in the elements of a liberal education, not only because of the value of their grammar as a mental discipline, or because of the merits of their literature, but for much wider reasons. The arts and letters of the civilized world are Greek, as its laws and history are Roman. This is in brief the ground on which the unique interest of Latin and Greek is based, and on which it will remain established as long as the continuity of civilization endures. In this point of view the two languages have a co-ordinate and inseparable claim upon us. Roman literature is formed upon Greek models; Roman laws, institutions, and society have caught the quickening fire of the Greek mind, and so have carried it on, often dimmed but never quenched, until it shone forth again with its own light. There is no mutual debt of the same kind from Greek to Latin; but Latin was the medium through which modern scholarship and teaching long worked upon Greek; and the Romanized Greek world of the Renaissance has in fact been, until our own time, the Greek world of all modern literature."

We would not deprecate the study of the modern languages, any more than we would substitute them for the ancient; they have their place, but their place is not where the Latin and Greek, by priority of settlement, by veneration of age, by indubitable and merited possession, have demonstrated their right to remain. The modern languages impart a pleasing taste, a delicate grace, and a worthy love for modern literature, and the true scholar will not only find them (especially French, Italian, and Spanish), of easy and delightful acquirement after a mastery of the Latin and Greek, but will generally find time to pursue them, either during or subsequent to the training years of college life. John Stuart Mill, the best authority on this point, whether we deduce our conclusion from his own unsurpassed knowledge, and the purity, elegance, and strength of his diction, or from his direct statements, says that "the mastery of

Latin makes it easier to learn four or five of the continental languages than it is to learn one of them without it." And this leads us to another thought in the same line of argument, viz.: The difficulty of studying the dead languages. To enable a student to successfully cope with a page of Cæsar, Cicero, or Tacitus, of Xenophon, Homer, or Plato, he must be carried through a long and laborious course of study in grammatical forms, rules, and principles; he must analyze words into roots, stems and terminations; he must know the force of connectives and particles; he must treasure up the rules and exceptions in the construction of sentences; he must be able to turn the pages of his lexicon, and from a multitude of meanings and shades of signification select one that reveals the force, and answers the end of the word to be construed. All this develops memory, reflection, reason; imparts to the pupil continuity of thought, tenacity of grip, and power of discrimination; strengthens his talents of perception and judgment; teaches him to observe distinctions, to weigh differences; it leads him into the fields of figurative language, and enables him to clothe his own thoughts with the beautiful garb of metaphors, similes, and tropes of every kind, which are so forcible, whether written or spoken. Not a difficult sentence can be transferred from the idiom of Latin and Greek to the idiom of English, or again from English to Latin or Greek, without bringing into requisition a strong mental effort, which produces a corresponding mental progress. There are no such returns of intellectual grasp and growth in the study of modern languages. Following the Sauveur method, it is confidently, and we believe with some truth, claimed that a bright pupil may acquire the ability of fluency of translation (we do not mean a thorough knowledge), in French and German in a single year of careful study. The very facility of acquisition precludes the possibility of discipline. The arm of the blacksmith grows muscular by ponderous strokes; the athlete becomes wiry and strong by lifting and wielding the heavy weights. The gnarled oak grows mighty and lifts its huge tops toward the skies by inuring itself to the storms and blasts of a northern winter. Toying with straws will give no muscle. We must grapple with something which takes all our strength, but imparts more for another and a grander effort. We do not study anatomy from living models; it is only the pulseless body, cold in death but perfect in form, that yields itself to the knife of the anatomist, and furnishes the basis for structural physiology. Latin and Greek are the fountain-head of language; and modern speech flowing from them becomes more or less weakened and corrupted as it is removed from its source. Living languages are subject to constant change, and therefore their grammars will not admit of a perfect scientific analysis. But Latin and Greek have yielded to the philological scapula for two thousand years, and their anatomy, in its minutest detail, has been formulated into perfect grammars, which from their very stability and perfection are of great value to the student. The life and influence of a man are not judged by those who live and labor with him. Washington was the subject of scorn, Webster the victim of vituperation, and Lincoln the target of assassination by men of their day; but now their words and deeds are embalmed in the hearts of the people, and we teach our children love of country, patriotism, and the worth of true manhood by pointing them to the characters of these men and such as these. Contemporaries may gather the facts of history as they occur, but it is only after passion and prejudice have subsided, that other pens, free from the poison of party bias, formulate those facts into history, and we read the influence of events only as we look at them through the vista of long passed years. The study of these languages by those who were native to the manner born, who in their daily intercourse used them as living tongues, could not have produced the same discipline of mind as is acquired by those who analyze them, as the anatomist studies the human frame.

We not only can form no adequate conception of the history, geography, art, philosophy of ancient times, except as we read of them in the language that flourished with them, but we can have no appreciation of the beauty, power, and fitness of our own tongue, except as we delve into the mysteries of that language by a study of the words as they came fashioned from the moulds that gave them creation. In examining the results which flow from conscientious instruction in living languages, especially the English language, it may be asserted, with no fear that any teacher or principal of a high school will attempt to contravene the statement, that in no one study, does a pupil enter the high school so poorly equipped, with his intellectual perceptions so completely blunted, his powers of adaptation so enfeebled, as in English grammar, or to use a broader term, in the English language. His vocabulary is so meager that a teacher in using the ordinary language of a cultivated home, will find herself constantly employing words of which the pupil has no adequate conception. The pupil may commit to memory the rules and principles of the grammar, but he does not learn to transfer them to the correction of his own speech, the enlargement of his own vocabulary, or the broadening of his own thought; and the legitimate source of this trouble does not wholly reside in the *modus operandi* of either the teacher or the text-book. Faithful teachers have been unremitting in their efforts for a score of years to better the instruction in this all-important study; the market has been literally flooded with text-books which no man can number, upon this subject, and yet no panacea to cure the evil has been invented or discovered. We believe the evil is inherent and natural. We learn to use our own vernacular in youth largely by example and intuition, and these two forces always at work, will far outweigh the knowledge acquired from the unattractive, theoretical text-book.

Put these same pupils into the study of Latin grammar, and the slow but gradual dissection of a Latin sentence, with all its varied forms, its intricate terminology, its rules and exceptions of etymology and syntax, and the *why* that meets them at every step, the very strangeness, laboriousness, and difficulty of the task, will open the intellect, develop the powers of discrimination and adaptation, multiply the instruments of labor, enlarge the vocabulary, until when they have studied Latin one-half the time that they have studied English (I care not how few authors they read, only so they are thoroughly taught), they will know more of their own language, write a better English essay, use a more terse and trenchant style of speech, grasp with more avidity and keenness any promulgated form of thought, than if they should spend double, aye, quintuple the time in a continuance of the study of English grammar. And all this, not only because Latin is so largely the progenitor of the English, but because we more naturally dissect the dead than the living, because we rivet our attention more upon the strange than the familiar, and because strength of intellect comes more from solving the difficult than the easy.

The entering wedge against the classics is the demand for the abrogation of Greek from our high-school courses; and I am convinced that if a sufficient amount of public opinion can be manufactured to push this claim to a successful issue, by substituting the modern-language route across the Isthmus, for the Cape-Horn route of Greek culture, the next step will be the subordination of Latin to make room for the claims of practicability involved in the study of the sciences, and a more extended knowledge of English literature. I doubt not there are many who, in the elegance of speech and force of logic obtained from classical study, would make a stirring appeal for the retention of Latin, but would apologize for the hospitality hitherto extended to the Greek, or would compromise with our opponents, by tamely allowing a modern tongue to usurp the place of the Greek. The State University of Iowa, which ought to be the educational star of the West, guiding the wisdom of school-district officers, yielded some time since to this diseased public opinion, and no longer requires Greek for admission, but commences it with the freshman year, thereby defeating the very end of its culture by doing the work which ought to be relegated to the high school; and we believe it is true, that in Iowa to-day, Greek finds no place in the curricula of secondary instruction.

Latin and Greek occupy the same relations to modern thought and modern progress that the carboniferous age occupies to the artificial light and heat of modern homes. We light and heat our firesides now by the consumed and adapted sunlight of paleozoic times. So the light and burning flames of modern literature and law come from the intellectual sunlight that warmed the soul, and inspired the tongue of the "blind old bard of Scio's rocky isle," and his successors in Greece and Rome. Allow me, before leaving this argument, to quote at length from an article recently written in defence of this study.

"In no language can an equal number of writers of the very first eminence be brought to bear on the formation of a youthful mind as in Greek. In poetry, history, philosophy, politics, page upon page of the most concentrated force, of the tersest expression, of the richest eloquence, of the nicest and most subtle discriminations, of the widest range and variety, strike successive blows on the imagination, and the thinking faculty of the impressible student; they disclose to him what human nature is capable of; what is waiting to be called forth in the boy's own spirit, the heights which others have reached, the thoughts and feelings he may himself create,—in a word, all the wondrous powers of the human intellect, all the noble emotions of the human soul. . . . Where can a boy be initiated into so many things, catch so many vistas, acquire, if not a profound, yet a most valuable and most fruitful familiarity with so many provinces of manly thought, as in the study of Homer, Eschylus, and Sophocles, Aristotle and Plato, Herodotus and Thucydides, Aristophanes and Demosthenes? These men have been the founders of civilization; they have hewn out the roads by which nations and individuals have traveled and travel still; the Greek type is the form of the thought of modern Europe; their writings on most vital points are fresh and living for us now, and no more decisive proof can be given of their genius, or their greatness.

"Homer and Thucydides are wonderful reading for us now, and upon that single truth the issue of this transcendent question might be staked."

THE CLASSICS VERSUS THE SCIENCES.

As we argue against the substitution of the modern languages for the ancient, so we consider it of no less importance that Latin and Greek should not be allowed to yield to the demands of the sciences, nay, rather of the scientists. Science bows at the altar of the classics, even as a grateful child canonizes the memory of a sainted mother. Scientists, infuriated with a love for their cause, and blind to the fact that untutored intellects cannot stretch the chasm that separates the tyro from the learned scholar, are fast becoming enemies to a realization of the highest type of scientific knowledge, by belittling the importance of classical research.

Science is being wounded in the very house of its friends.

A study of these languages is the natural precursor of the study of the sciences; they furnish the intellect to grapple with them, they provide the tools for dissection and discovery, they give the necessary power for the abstruse and subtle investigation which science calls upon her children to make. They are living languages in their relation to science. If they live in modern literature and modern law, if they live in the language of home, the forum, and marts of business, and they do live indirectly here, as they are the germ and essence of all language, they live, and move, and breathe in the domain of science. Its very alphabet is Greek. A slavish knowledge of Latin and especially Greek (and by slavish we mean that quality which is of least value in their attainment), is essential to a comprehensive grasping and a quick adaptability in the use of the mysterious terminology of science, and therefore essential to a facile and pleasing acquirement of the grand themes which God has written for man's interpretation, upon leaf, and bud, and flower, upon tree, and rock, and soil, upon sun, and star, and planet, upon the earth, beneath the earth, above the earth.

Nature; science; chemistry, in all its subtle power; botany, in its far-reaching connections with the life and health of man; mineralogy, portraying the omnipotence of the very author of mathematical precision, in its crystalline beauty; geology, historical and structural, overthrowing the dogmas of time, and making the age of man almost fabulous in the eternity of the past; these are at once the most beautiful and most difficult studies which modern intellect grapples with, and their secrets will not be known until man is deified, or Deity explains them. The leaves of nature are not turned by unskilled hands, nor are their language comprehended by unskilled intellects. There can be no scientific development unless there is scientific receptivity, and there can be but little scientific receptivity unless the mind has been previously schooled and trained in the gymnastics of liberal culture.

To approach the study of science in its philosophical relations, and thus it should be approached, requires the subtlest powers of analysis, the most correct judgment, the keenest discrimination, the nicest aptitude for generalization, the most astute ability for construction. These qualifications in their approximate perfection, or in their approximate necessity, can best and only be secured by a mastery of the classics, and a familiarity with mathemathics. Underrate the value of science? By no means. We appreciate its power so fully, we rate its importance so highly, we bow to its teachings so humbly, that we would not have intellectual pigmies, strutting and self-conceited, approach within the sacred precincts of Nature's laboratory, as an uncultivated boor insinuates himself into the atmosphere and society of the refined and cultured; and we are pained that the advocates of science, to multiply her votaries, are willing to obliterate the distinction between the mature and immature, who are alike welcomed to her shrines.

We have been speaking of science in its philosophy, its technicalities. As such it cannot precede, it cannot displace the classics, it cannot even be comprehended in a college curriculum; but science in its outlying beauties, in the suburbs of its almost impregnable citadel, elementary science in its grand truths, is taught, and by multiplying its appliances we think may be increasingly taught in the last half of the college course; nay, we even think that science, in its still more elementary forms, in the unfolding and inculcation of its great principles, may and ought to be a part of every high-school and every college preparatory-school curriculum. Natural history, in the structure, characteristics, and habits of mammals, inspiring the boys to learn the use of the rifle, to roam the fields, track the snows, traverse the forests, in search of bird and beast, and nest, and egg in the proper season; botany, particularly in the analysis of the flora of one's own village, county, and State, sending the girls and the boys, fired with a spirit of emulation, out into the invigorating atmosphere, over the plains and into the marshes, with keen eye and observing mind, to gather root and stalk and flower of every strange and familiar plant; natural philosophy, imparting a knowledge of the mechanical powers, teaching the leading principles of electricity, with its varied experiments, and recent inventions so rapidly multiplying, opening the eye and ear to the laws of optics and sound, of light and heat; geology, holding the keys which unlock the secrets of earth's deep treasures, showing by increasing approximations to substantiated truth, as the science develops, the age of man and the world, and inspiring boys with trowel and hammer to search for fossil and fauna; astronomy, not in its closest mathematical calculations, but in its description of the geography of the heavens, and the relations of the great central suns and the fixed stars to one another,—these sciences and these facts, which make up the general sum of knowledge, enlarging our views of essential culture, inspiring a taste for the scientific, and opening the eyes to the heights, and depths, and lengths, and breadths of the untraversed ocean and the unbroken wilderness of knowledge, ought to be given a place in their primordial elements in every high school and academy in the nation, and in a still more advanced way, as appliances are increased and minds are more mature, in every college. But we should bear in mind that between the facts of natural history and the science of these facts, between the elements of natural sciences and the science of nature, there is a labyrinth of mysteries, which the legitimate college should not assume as being within its province to unfold to untutored minds.

LATIN AND GREEK VERSUS ANGLO-SAXON.

The next and last position which we shall take in favor of the classics (and we believe it an impregnable one) is, that Latin and Greek constitute the thesaurus whence came the ore which supplied the mint where was moulded the coin of our English vocabulary, which now circulates at par around the globe. The English language is composed quite exclusively of words of either ancient, classical, or Anglo-Saxon origin. To appreciate the real place and power of words, we must be able to study them from authors who used them in the originals. To understand a steam engine we must be able to take it apart and put it together again. To comprehend the free scope of a word, we must know how to both analyze and synthesize it. Now, it is claimed that a study of the Anglo-Saxon is sufficient for all the essential ends of poetry, philosophy, persuasion, and science, and great and laudable efforts have been made, particularly under the leadership of Prof. March, of Lafayette College, to more generally introduce its study into our higher schools. The effort is a commendable one, as is any that will shed light upon language; but we deny the claim that any scholar, however profound his scholarship, however extended his culture, though his brain be the very citadel of Anglo-Saxon, can either write or speak in the English tongue, upon rhetoric, philosophy, or science, can use effectively the language of poetry, persuasion, or pathos, can arouse, inspire, and convince in the pulpit, the forum, or at the bar, can even converse fluently in the drawing-room or in the marts of business, by simply clothing his thought in the scanty garb of Anglo-Saxon. It is certainly fair to presume that a person writing for the express purpose of maintaining this argument, that Anglo-Saxon is sufficient for these ends, would himself impregnate his logic almost exclusively with Anglo-Saxon, if it were at all potent to his purpose. Allow me, therefore, to make one illustration, and "*ex uno disce omnes*," from one learn all. The passage I am about to quote has been used once before by Prof. Fiske, of the Northwestern Univresity, in a similar article, and I am indebted to him not only for the suggestion, but also largely for the arrangement of the argument. I desire to call your closest attention to the great number of foreign words which the author uses (observe that they are italicized), and to remember that he is arguing against the necessity of using words of Latin origin. The article in question is from the pen of no less a man than the Hon. Geo. P. Marsh, in his "Lectures on the English Language." He says:

"When an *intelligent foreigner commences* the *study* of English, he finds every *page* sprinkled with words, whose *form unequivocally betrays* a *Greek* or *Latin origin*, and he *observes* that these *terms* are words belonging to the *dialect* of the learned *professions*, of *theological discussion*, of *criticism*, of *elegant art*, of *moral* and *intellectual philosophy*, of *abstract science*, and of the *various* branches of *natural* knowledge. He finds that *very* many of the *native monosyllables* are *mere determinatives*, *particles*, *auxiliaries*, and *relatives;* and he can hardly fail to *infer* that all the *intellectual part* of our speech, all that *concerns* our highest *spiritual* and *temporal interests*, is of *alien* birth, and that only the *merest machinery* of *grammar* has been *derived* from a *native source.* Further *study* would teach him that he had *overrated* the *importance* and *relative amount* of the *foreign ingredients;* that many of our seemingly *insignificant* and *barbarous consonantal monosyllables* are *pregnant* with the mightiest thoughts, and alive with the deepest feeling; that the *language* of the *purposes* and the *affections*, of the will and of the heart, is *genuine* English-born; that the *dialect* of the *market* and the fireside is *Anglo-Saxon;* that the *vocabulary* of the most *impressive* and *effective pulpit orators* has been almost wholly drawn from the same *pure source;* that the *advocate* who would *convince* the *technical judge*, or dazzle and *confuse* the *jury*, speaks *Latin;* while he who would touch the better *sensibilities* of his *audience*, or rouse the *multitude* to *vigorous* action, chooses his words from the *native* speech of our *ancient* fatherland; that the *domestic* tongue is the *language* of *passion* and *persuasion*, the *foreign* of *authority* or of *rhetoric* and *debate;* that we may not only frame *single sentences*, but speak for *hours*, without *employing* a *single imported* word; and *finally*, that we *possess* the *entire volume* of *divine revelation* in the truest, *clearest*, *aptest form* in which *human ingenuity* has made it *accessible* to *modern* man, and yet with a *vocabulary*, wherein, saving *proper names* and *terms* not in their *nature translatable*, scarce seven words in the hundred are *derived* from any *foreign source.*

"In *fact*, so *complete* is the *Anglo-Saxon* in itself, and so much of its *original independence* is still *inherited* by the *modern* English, that if we could but *recover* its *primitive flexibility* and *plastic power*, we might *discard* the *adventitious aids* and *ornaments* which we have borrowed from the *heritage* of *Greece* and *Rome*, *supply* the *place* of *foreign* by *domestic compounds*, and clothe again our thoughts and our feelings *exclusively* in a garb of living, *organic*, *native* growth."

Although you already appreciate that the author has caught a Tartar, let me bring the argument a little more forcibly to your attention. The opponents of the classics, or those who enforce the all-sufficiency of the Anglo-Saxon, have a very deceptive way of arguing, by citing the great numerical disproportion of foreign and domestic words. Judged in this way one would find only fourteen words out of every forty, or one-third, to be of Latin or Greek. But if you carefully examine how largely italicized these lines are, you will not easily be convinced that twenty-sixth fortieths are of native origin. You are aware that the meaning of a word is often in proportion to its length, and that there are many long words of Latin origin whose every syllable is pregnant with thought, and that to define it in Anglo-Saxon would require more whole words than there are now syllables. Let us, therefore, place the Saxon words of this selection in solid lines, likewise the words of classical derivation, and we find the Saxon numbers nineteen lines, and classical twenty-one; so that by this test we find that instead of fourteen to forty, our ratio has increased so that we have twenty-one to forty, more than one-half of the solid page from a classical source. But let us apply a still truer and far more important test. We must judge of the value of the contribution which any language makes toward shaping the moulds of another language, by carefully considering the dignity and force of the words thus contributed. If we critically survey again these paragraphs, we will find that the chief office of the Anglo-Saxon is to furnish particles, connectives, and relative words with which to bind together the real thought-words of classical derivation, an office which in the Latin and Greek is very largely performed by simply a significant change in the terminology of the word, without adding a syllable or even a letter to its length. Thus in these paragraphs the word "the" occurs 39 times; "a" or "an", 6 times; "of", 30 times; "and", 22 times; "is" or "are", 10 times; and the conjunction "that", 14 times. If now we count these words holding an inferior place in the expression of thought, only once, we will find 181 repetitions of words, and that out of the original 285 there are now only 104 Saxon words, resulting in a style but sixteen-fortieths Saxon. Let us take one more glance. It is a noticeable fact that the words of Latin and Greek origin are mostly nouns, adjectives, and verbs, words which are foundations and pillars in the structure of thought, while those of Saxon are largely conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs. In the article quoted there are, by careful count, 15 adverbs, 9 prepositions, 2 articles, 12 pronouns, 7 conjunctions, and 13 auxiliary verbs. If we deduct these, we will find that we have 46 Anglo-Saxon words and 152 of Latin and Greek, which reduces our ratio of twenty-six fortieths, when based upon a numerical comparison, to ten-fortieths when based upon the truer and more logical comparison of the real significance of words. Twenty-five per cent. Anglo-Saxon, and seventy-five per cent. Latin and Greek.

Again, will you please glance back and read the quotation, using only the Anglo-Saxon words, and then judge of their power in an article written to prove their importance.

Let him, therefore, who would despise the fact that we borrow our English from foreign sources, let him who would discard these words from the English vocabulary, let him who would decry the study of Latin and Greek in the original, tell us where we shall go "for the English of literature, but to Latin, and for the English of science, but to Greek."

RELATIONS OF A CLASSICAL EDUCATION AND POLITICAL ADVANCEMENT.

Politics and political preferment are occupying so large a place in the thoughts and ambitions of men; and the necessity of safe and wise legislation, that has made our nation honored, respected, and feared around the globe, is so great, that we are tempted to delve into statistics concerning the relative proportion of classical graduates in the high places of honor and trust in the nation; but we must largely desist and hasten to a close. We all know that the intriguing manipulations of political parties, and the prevalence of the you-tickle-me-and-I'll-tickle-you policy, are such that men of merit, of conscience, of honest hearts and cultured intellects, do not, in our country, have an equal chance with bribing demagogues and the purchasable friends of railroad corporations. And again, when any man is now elected or appointed to a high office of honor, it has become almost nauseating to hear the repeated echo, "He is of humble but respectable parentage, and has worked himself up, without the advantages of an education, through poverty, and by self-culture, to his present prominence," until superficial thought has forced upon us the conclusion that classical scholarship is incompatible with political advancement, but the facts and figures are on the other side. Of the untold millions who have breathed the air of liberty in our native land, since Harvard College was founded, there have been less than 125,000 classical graduates, and yet, these 125,000 have been more potent in advancing the art, literature, science, education, religion, civilization, and in shaping the legislation of our nation, than all the other millions combined. Let us suppose that 150,000,000 of people have lived in this country (I dare not make the number larger), from the small fraction of 125,000 classically educated (I am reading facts), have been taken the men who have filled *three-fourths* of all the offices of highest rank, one-half of all the offices of second rank, and one-third of all the offices of third rank, since the foundation of the government; while in the realms of literature, higher education, and pulpit prominence, more than ninety per cent. have come from these same ranks. Of the presidents, vice-presidents, members of the cabinet, and supreme judges, since 1787, three-fourths have been the classical graduates of colleges. Fifty per cent. of United States senators, and more than thirty-three per cent. of the representatives in congress, have been selected from the same class.

He whose statue was a few years ago unveiled in Central Park dipped his pen in the ink of classical learning when he wrote the preamble to the constitution: "We, the people," &c.; and one hundred and eighteen of the three hundred and fifty men who sat in the Continental Congress, were classical graduates. He who ably wrote, and he who grandly defended, by his immortal utterances, the Declaration of Independence, and twenty-eight of the fifty-six signers who hurled this charter into the teeth of the British Lion, making the republic possible, and bequeathing to us and our posterity the blessings of liberty, were classical graduates.

And when our country shall contain fifty states, and one hundred millions of people, as wise men predict it will at the close of the present century, if we would be strong in the intellectual vigor of national manhood, if we would avert the dangers that threaten us, and resist the temptations that allure us, we must not only labor for the general diffusion of intelligence among the masses, by eliminating from our common school system its many faults, and defending its improved condition against the vile attacks of modern politicians and time-servers, but we must stand as educators, shoulder to shoulder, an unbroken phalanx, in maintaining the incomparable superiority of the thorough knowledge of the classics for the attainment of that broad, intellectual discipline, which the higher interests of science, religion, education, and politics will always demand.

THE MINISTRATION OF LITERATURE.

MINNE CAROLINE CLARK, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

While accepting the task before me with humility, I have a well-grounded suspicion that this grand council of the nation may be following an old Indian custom, in choosing a woman to open this question, which was that, while the braves from afar were lighting each other's fires and exchanging calumets, one poor weak squaw was chosen to dig with her hands a hole in which the hatchet was to be buried. I hope I have dug deep enough! If I have failed to do so let this fact reflect no discredit upon my sister teachers at home, nor upon those responsible for my presenting this broad theme.

I am aware that ethical philosophy amounts to idle words unless exposed to the rude test of teaching; that no teacher who has not lived the life of an apostle and is ready to endure martyrdom for her cause can expect the public ear. Hence the few points that I have suggested in this limited paper will be valued only because I have specialized and proved them in my experience as teacher.

The aim of education is still an indefinite question. Impulse seems to be in the right direction, but practice lags behind. Which notion is correct appears from a careful study of its various supporters, of the pupils' attitude towards self-improvement, and the world in general.

The *Journal of Education* mistakes in thinking that the author of the following quotation had no means of judging when he said, "The only thing in which the public schools of Boston are universally and brilliantly successful is in destroying all power of youthful thought." The honest, clear-sighted editor who wrote the above harsh criticism, does not say our schools fail to accomplish much; but he sees thought languish, when information, "grown to pleurisy, dies of its own too-muchness."

I live in full sympathy with my day and generation; but I cannot see that pupils of either high school or college are sure to be directed under the present curricula, wisely, constantly towards individual character and moral goodness.

I scan the intricate structure of college courses, scale the treacherous ladder of industrial training, to find some loop-hole; I welcome the tiny window or half-open door, and hail with joy the wide-flung portal of school or college, wherein our mother tongue may enter. Thus, my subject, from external agents, shapes itself *a la Chinese,* into

THE MINISTRATION OF LITERATURE.

Had I the pen of Mrs. Browning, I would write a new "Cry of the Children." The same cry of the human,—the hunger of body and mind; begging for nutritious thought as daily bread, for simple, wholesome philosophy; and content that would round out the half-loaf of poverty.

It should be a cry for the helpful, not merely gainful instruction, and for that broad understanding of science, as, "a breadth and impartiality of view which liberates the mind from specialties and enables it to organize whatever is learned, so that it becomes real knowledge, by being brought into true and helpful relation with the rest."

Do you doubt that we suffer from the mistakes of nations that yearly send their thousands of poor to till our ground—or cumber it? Yet, we have not ceased to transplant questionable parts of their educational systems.

Dishonesty in business and politics, indifference to things of no cash value, the haste and greed of the young educated (?) American, may not be due to the public school; but, admitting that there is something "rotten in Denmark," do you not believe that the ethics of good reading will prove the best of moral anticeptic?

A French couplet expresses what I take to be the basis of secondary school education: *"Il faut dans ce monde aimer beaucoup de choses, pour savoir apres tout ce qu'on aime le mieux."*

We must like many things in this world
To learn after all what is best.

Its object is to develop (1) Intellectually; (2) Physically; (3) Morally; (4) Practically; (5) To fit for college.

Adapting the above quotation to certain condemned high-school methods, it would read: We must know many things in this world in order to know how to get into college.

President Eliot tells us that the decision of a child's profession or trade must be made at a time when neither child nor wise parent can rightly tell of future needs and ability. Would it not be well during the formative period to gather all the materials that we wish to enter into a child's make-up, and by means of books supply light and color, not trust to putting in at haphazard a skylight here and there when the structure shall be done?

It is a mistake to suppose that those who rate literature most highly must necessarily undervalue other branches which minister to it.

Industrial training alone won't satisfy. I cannot but believe that man-training and not manual training was, after all, the making of Hans Sachs and the Neistersingers of Muremberg.

Teach the humanities as I have seen them taught in the Boston Latin schools, in Waterville, Me., and language becomes humanistic, pulsing with life,—not dead.

I urge the necessity and beauty of mathematics; but while I quote to pupils the inscription over the entrance to the Academus, I do not forget that Plato the man, is a more valuable study than the geometry he recommends.

Science, the seeing eye and searching mind, becomes a divine thing under a teacher like Agassiz, who was too busy, as he said, to engage in making money.

The high-school boy should be made to realize that he, who sees not into and beyond the history of his own country, is unfit to judge himself in relation to his times, and cannot be an intelligent voter.

In the times of our national peril, Motley affirmed: "There is nothing worth talking about but politics!" History from his pen must bear some stirring message to my boys, from whom I often glean that politics don't amount to anything.

Some one says that the perfect mastery of any honest occupation may raise one into a philosopher; so, the perfect teaching of any one subject has a vast inclusiveness.

The colleges may boast of their four-square graduates. (A girl's education, at most, may still be called triangular;) but were the works of the secondary school less anticipative, and, for every scholar careful to provide more sound English training, I am sure that the melancholy confessions of ignorance and *ennui* would not lead us to despair of life.

This good training includes:—

- Ideas.
- Thought.
- Language.
  - Words.
  - Sentences.
  - General expression.
  - Reading.
  - Writing.
  - Pronunciation.
- Principles.
  - Thought action.
    - Manhood.
    - Womanhood.
    - Citizenship.

As a teacher of English, what with the requirements in Greek and Latin on the one hand, and the claims of science and mathematics on the other, I have been made to feel in the position of a little girl who was seen carrying an umbrella when there were no signs of either rain or sun. When asked why she held it up over her head, she answered, "Well, father carries it when it rains and ma has it when the sun shines, so this the only time I can have it."

I feel this especially with the college division. The work of the scholar follows the pressure of the school. If English is assigned one hour out of eighteen or twenty hours per week, the scholar is forced to follow the prescribed course.

The difficulties in the way of excellent work are having to create a taste in pupils; prejudice of the more responsible members of the community; neglect, indifference of the same; the free text-book law; inability to give due attention to the personal needs of the large number (300 more or less) under my charge; college requirements.

Emerson says: "We send our children to the public school thinking that the teachers, the studies, educate them; but in reality, it is their companions, the shop windows, the street."

True! yet oftentimes this precarious education needs counteracting. Suppose my boy chance to fall in with the wrong kind of class-mates; could he ever, even in wandering over our Boston Common, that ought to abound in saints and sages, find a peripatetic philosopher who would serve as "guide and friend"?

Pardon me for expressing by local allusion a deep personal conviction, that, under discouraging circumstances, rarely can boy or girl find outside of books, the help strong enough to take him or her

From the "Frog-Pond" of despond
To a "Garden" just beyond.

Literature in our high schools is too often a thing of shreds and patches —better than nothing. The secondary school should supply what will endure the "storm and stress" period of life. This fragmentary learning may last like Benedette's fragile mosaics, which after a rough sea voyage, when he wished to show them to King Hugoman, were found to have unglued and spoiled; he resolved to practice thereafter the more permanent art of sculpture.

The work of a class may be kept above the average, the bright ones spurring instead of discouraging the dull pupils. There are many, many gates to English, and it is well to remember that if the small mind cannot go through the broad way, it will go hard with the large-minded upper end of the class to squeeze through the small gate.

Who that recalls the early delight of "browsing among brooks," would refuse to give the young such privileges as Charles Lamb claims for his cousin Bridget's reading?

The long, long thoughts derived from a certain book closet let into the wall of an old country house; from certain familiar book shelves wherein the now quaint bindings were first associated with names of classic interest, prove the value of what Holmes calls "knocking about among books."

The Worcester high school, by the way, should be cited as the best example of what school pressure can accomplish in the way of reading and ownership of books.

Much of one's fondness for authors dates back to hearing them as household words on the lips of parents. And how can the ten motherless girls counted in one school do without the remembrance of that book made sacred by mother's mention?

Yet parents,—amateur educators, some one calls them,—are often unfit to direct anybody's reading. Instance the examples of "Westward Ho," Charles Auchester, M. J. Holmes, "J. B."

By pleasant allusion, quotation, citation, the teacher must supply all known deficiencies and probabilities, and make it easy for the scholar to remember a few of the many books that he or she is curious to inspect.

At the risk of being called discursive, I would have the interest of my class. I blame myself or my accessions if pupils do not usually wear cheerful faces, though I believe in working our passage through life.

One strong objection to the free text-book law is, that it removes the wholesome effect of self help. There may be something wholesome, even stimulating, in the limitations that hamper my daily work, applying some philosophy. Still, the natural mind like the eye craves brightness, imagination; and as I glance along our grand canal of learning, the absence of color reminds me of that ancient law of Venice which decreed that all gondolas should be painted black. Of what splendid rivalries have our schools been guilty that we feel bound to dull uniformity? Our boats will reach the landing as soon; we shall learn to enjoy the ins and outs of the long journey, if truth, needing no false colors for adornment, lends many hues to our courses of study.

In giving an outline of the English course as followed in our high school, I am conscious of its weak points; these may be wanting in a school where the number of scholars is less, or the teachers more; where English history has already been taught, and a more thorough provision for written works is made.

We have had no text-books except a Swinton's "Literature," several years ago, and one Shaw's "Literature" for every two pupils of the third class, last year; no school library for reading or reference; a membership of 400, and a public library of 13,617 volumes, with a city population of 30,000.

The outline for fourth class is:—

Longfellow Lowell	Complete editions.
Whittier Irving	In part.
Hawthorne, outside reading.	
Holmes, Taylor, Bryant, Poe	By selections. Written and discussed biographies.

Miscellaneous questions written in blank books, with answers; these include most noted works.

Minor writers brought in by class,—name put upon board, discussed, sifted, copied in B. Bs.

Poetry:—
- Illustrations of verse.
- Simple figures, words.
- Copying and learning of best parts.
- Historical basis of the various poems.

Books and stories to illustrate our different localities:—
- N. E.
- West.
- Nor.
- So.
- N. Y., etc.

War topics treated of in above.

Clipping days: Days when each pupil must bring in some items of interest from daily papers. Example: 250th anniversary of Harvard College; scholars read orations, talked over topics that came up, and told their interest in the event.

Historians:
- Whittier and Hawthorne are ranked among these.
- Motley.
- Bancroft.
- Prescott.
- Parkman.

Book lists of American authors.

Outside reading required in history, biography, and special authors.

All reading of standard authors credited.

Special stress laid upon the credit due to the pupil who may choose one of the best ideas to read, learn, or reproduce.

THIRD CLASS.

No one can teach thoroughly the development of English language, without having a strong foundation of general history and a special knowledge of English civilization. Would that the scholars under my training might take time to learn how to speak naturally, connectedly upon the few epochs required in literature.

Eight landmarks will do.

Since without books, I must carry English history along with literature, development, and reading, it is packed up in light marching order.

I urge the scholars to memorize in their own way, if it be easier than the one I suggest. There is often some connection of fact or figures to be pointed out by the teacher; this the pupil is quick enough to grasp. For instance, if I wished to impress upon a class the time of an important division made in Italy, I might observe— I do not say I did—might descend to the gross expedient of saying: Charles the Fat, 888—died. (8-8-8.)

Another example: Dryden, leader of artificial school of poets, died in 1700; Cowper, leader of the next natural school, died in 1800.

Starting with the Roman conquest of England, we soon come upon works to read. Under Britain, we have Shakespeare, Tennyson, Lamir, etc.; under Saxon, Danish, and Norman England, we have Scott, Kingsley, Bulwer, and the historians.

We are thus forced to notice the authors of our century. Scott serves as the central star, and is readily connected with our first great American authors.

Each scholar writes upon the board such scraps of Anglo-Saxon and old English as can be picked up.

I regret to say that so wholesome a dish as Chaucer is served up in this way, but the picturesque, homespun beauties of his style and an idea of the formative period of English, is fixed in the mind of the recitee (not Chaucerian French, newly coined).

We enjoy the exercise of stripping off the outer leaves of superstition that envelop old monkish legends, to seek some hidden flower of truth beneath.

The Elizabethan period next furnishes a rich variety for outside reading, biography, and topical recitation.

"Westward Ho," and "Merchant of Venice" are the only books I have required in this period. Here I should prefer to make the needful resting-point at first, studying forward and backward to it; but, since the new law, I am unable to break away from certain ancient customs that had better be observed in the breach.

If a third class is ready to enjoy and appreciate Shakespeare, why not let them have it, and trust to Providence for more Shakesperian plays when the senior class needs them?

In one high school the principal refused to let a bright, unusually appreciative class read Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice," on the plea that if they did enjoy it, it would take away their fresh interest for the graduating year.

Passing the next period, with perhaps a gentle debate over Cromwell, and a keen scrutiny of parties, we come to another strong *point d'appui*, grouping authors and events about Addison, Steele, and Goldsmith, whose works we study. Here the outside reading allows full scope for the individual taste.

Book lists are kept in view.

My plan for written work is to place on the board a list of subjects. After the pupils have read all they can get and have consulted the teacher, they add to this list, deciding upon their special topic and the way it shall be treated. Originality must be secured, and the pupil held responsible for the interest of his hearers. This method secures attention, allroundness of treatment, repetition of important facts, while each feels his share of credit in contributing to the unity of the whole.

"Tom Brown" is not so easily read as the pupil is apt to fancy. Language lessons are often made distinct from the ideas of the book; paraphrasing, references of all kinds, even definition matches lend variety.

But no book has aroused such general enthusiasm as "The Mill on the Floss." I wish the scholars might speak for themselves, or that I might set before you a composite photograph of its vital effects.

Under its influence I have seen the very souls of my class expand. Most of them will now tell you that they realized for the first time all that might be gotten out of a book, through a system of careful reading and noting passages.

At the time of writing this, I asked to see again several of the books read and marked. They looked on the outside like Falstaff's regiment: but the inside showed signs of original taste,—a quick, or quickened perception for beauties of style, imagery, nature, and character,—things suggested for noting.

Yet there was prejudice against this helpful work, with all its rich. strongly stamped lessons of rhetoric and thought.

They came not from parents or children, but from those ignorant of its real value, no doubt. And the "cry of the children" to read this book again, I must not hear.

Do we fortify a boy or girl against the daily trials of life, by refusing to open our eyes to the actual?

The hero and heroine are brother and sister; every circumstance, incident, is such as a boy or a girl sees daily but which is not always mastered through the force of character that Tom and Maggie display.

An intimate knowledge of the inner and social life of many, many boys and girls, as they were in school, and are now, leads me to condemn the objection to so-called novel reading. Examine our average high-school pupil, and see if this old-fashioned notion does not call to mind the story of that delicate maiden lady, who took cold and was likely to be carried off—she didn't know why—unless it was from eating her gruel out of a damp bowl.

Let any student of social ethics compare the reading of "The Mill on the Floss," with the analysis of "Locksley Hall," a masterpiece included in many literatures.

Second class:—
Coleridge and Burns.
Contemporaries.
Choice of two biographies at least, beside.
Tennyson: Two long poems,—word painting.
Occasional essay or reading to class.

And, best of all, selections from Holmes's "Autocrat, Professor, and Poet at the Breakfast Table."

Miscellaneous questions, and reading; book list of English authors reviewed:

- list of 100.
- list of 25.
- list of 10, etc.

Three eras of Drama talked about.

First Class:—

Milton, Shakespeare, Wordsworth, and rhetoric applied, if possible, to special study of these authors.

Two or three essays from the best writers,—Emerson, Spencer, Froude, Carlyle, Mill, Macaulay.

In connection with versification, class read from Byron and Southey. Metre and figures of speech are practiced by original examples. Classes enjoy scanning together and writing on the board any kind of metre that the teacher specifies.

OUTSIDE READING: BOOK LISTS AGAIN.

This outline fails to suggest the various methods by which it is administered. As I believe that each character to its own shall come, through the breadth and depth of reading good books or good people, so I believe that in his own way, each teacher must acquire methods peculiar to himself, of which no *penetralia* may be set down accurately.

The only true method is the never-failing, hardly-won method of inspiration,—a flash light instead of tallow dips.

The teacher, though he feel his own soul reflected in the broad, universal atmosphere, must seek to prove that "love stoops as proudly as it soars." To enlist interest and sympathy is the chief aim. The biographies of certain men and women as discussed in our text-books stand for a series of hard facts. But the life of Swift, or Steele, or Chatterton may be so treated as to leave a lesson of charity and tenderness; a reverence for what was good, and an aversion to the degrading.

What a chance for the lover of Goldsmith, for the admirer of poetry, for the political economist does "The Deserted Village" offer!

What pathos and patriotism abound in the stories of "Rodman the Keeper," "My Hunt after the Captain," "The Man without a Country"!

A way to Parkman's fascinating pages may be opened by reading to the class a chapter from Miss Wilson's "Anne," "Lake Sketches," or from Cable's stories of the mixed New Orleans races.

While I read in the latter of man's injustice and cruelty, the heart of the hardest boy softens towards the abused, long-suffering brother of "Tit Frire, the Leper."

Experience and inquiry prove that the value of training is in the tone.

A fine fellow,—graduate of Harvard, said: "What! do you mean to say that scholars are interested in the study of English literature? I supposed it was usually taught as I have seen it. I learned to hate it."

The over-critical comparisons, tedious to the quick, and not followed by the dull, have a chilling influence on the interest of a class.

This system of analysis ought not to be carried to such a depth with immature pupils. I advise and help pupils to grow to a book. If duly encouraged, they will try. This year, a girl who said she could not read "Ivanhoe," before studying the history of English language, afterwards wrote a very clear account of the most interesting parts, stating her pleasure therein; a boy who tried twice in one year to see into "Hypatia," this year reports: "It's fine! I see through it now."

Some people may claim that reading in this broad way does not lead to concentration. Concentration is often degraded into narrowness. Besides, if he hasn't learned at home, the pupil must learn in the class-room how as well as what to read. The boy who read "Hypatia" had gained in generalization as well as in concentration.

Analysis according to knowledge is my rule. Many times I must be content to know that the pupil has chosen a fine passage,—a sound, sweet thought, without pressing him as to his reason for taste. Rich instincts flourish none the better for being pulled up by the roots.

How far shall we overcome the reserve that, in later years, may teach us to be ashamed of our best feelings?

I know of no more charming trait in girl or boy than a pretty unconsciousness, perhaps oftenest seen in literature, which draws from the ingenuous mind most curious child-notions.

It is a mistake even in older classes to keep to lofty thought and abstractions. Leave Milton's warring hosts and come down to the application of these high themes in the daily contests with self and the world.

Sometimes we long for a story of a boy not so well kept as Tom Brown,—one with ragged shoes and a soul above them, like Lincoln or Burns;—one possibly who would be a communist, not for money, but for brains.

Let us have a real, undisciplined, passionate girl like Maggie Tulliver, struggling with trials that are not represented by x.

And if nature can produce anything so ponderable as a tree by entrusting its germ to a delicate-winged seed vessel, we may believe that a strong, deep thought may grow up from some simple story, "Laddie," or "Rab and his Friends," for example.

Still, there must be heavy thoughts beyond the present understanding; an idea memorized may remain a seeming clod for a long time. Suddenly some hard hit in life may smite this sparkling glode of thought, and reveal to the possessor its inner beauty and value.

This is the growing, glorious 100 per cent. which we shall not see a shall not mark.

No doubt our rating of studies would be changed if we could guess at either present or future values.

If all depends upon the character, the suggestiveness of the teacher, teach the boys and girls that they are, to you, more interesting than Miss Alcott's "Jo's Boys," and "Little Women," and you will see them draw up to a new, unconscious dignity.

Teach them that the lost art of pleasing and conversing comes from gracious instincts and an exact use of our mother tongue.

Teach them to dare walk under the stars, and ask of their own naked souls what success in life means.

If I have dwelt longer on the tone of teaching than upon its methods, it is from no lack of interest in the latter.

If in man you have never felt the lack suggested by this:—

"A primrose on the river's brim,
A yellow primrose, was to him,—
And it was nothing more;"

if in woman, you have never realized the beauty and force of these lines:—

"The stars of midnight shall be dear to her,
And she shall lean her ear in every secret place,
And music born of murmuring sound
Shall pass into her face;"

then, I shall not have your approbation.

Visionary is it? Yes; but remember the wisest king of old, and the seer of our modern day, say, "Where there is no vision the people perish."

THE ORDER AND RELATION OF STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.

SAMUEL THURBER, MILTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Whatever shape the secondary education of the future may take, it will surely be an outgrowth of the secondary education of to-day. Change will be gradual and well in the rear of the public sentiment that calls for change. Hence, the high-school course, as it actually exists and is well known to us who work in it, is practically the necessary point of departure for any discussion that contemplates revision or modification of this course.

A German writer on secondary education remarks that the German people, were they to have to constitute the gymnasium anew from the beginning, would make an institution very different from the existing one,—an observation that seems very just to any one who knows the present temper of that people with regard to its upper schools. The old house is hard to build over with the family still living in it, and the family cannot move out. Hence, temporary shifts must be resorted to from time to time, and it is the sum of these temporary shifts that in the long run reconstructs the edifice and brings to pass an extensive remodeling without the vicissitude of destruction. But traces of the old plan survive indefinitely. Every school that has a history contains anomalies that are unmeaning, except as reminiscences of an earlier era. Something in its class names, its order of studies, its ceremonial, perplexes a stranger till he learns the facts of its past. If it is a famous school, newer ones will often be found to have copied some of these idiosyncrasies, as if these were valuable parts of its plan.

The proper function of such a meeting as this would seem to be to mediate between the schools as they are and the forces in society and the State which call for change. On the one hand we must resist; on the other, we must yield. But we must do both wisely. An intelligent conservatism will win for us respect, and will enhance our influence, but obstruction will jeopardize our standing as leaders and reduce us to mere employes. The fundamental question of the right of our schools to exist at all is disappearing from view. Evidently the field is practically won. The people have not been persuaded to withdraw from us their support. Self-preservation ceases to be an all-absorbing issue, and we can turn to questions of internal economy, with the purpose to bring the secondary schools into the fullest possible relation of sympathy with social and civil needs.

As they originated in the oldest communities of the country, the high schools seem to have been formed on the conception that they should be epitomes of all existing knowledge. The purpose of the founders was that learning should not perish from the earth. Their teachers were learned men, transmitters of their scholarship to the next generation. The learned man figured then in society much more largely than he does now. His main stay was his Latin. It was the age of clerical domination. A college degree gave a man dignity and standing, affirming him to be master or doctor, competent to teach the arts he knew. This ancient conception of the upper schools and their teachers is passing away. It is inconsistent with modern ideas, and should pass away. It is no longer requisite for a teacher to be a learned man; but he must know well whatever he has to teach, and, above and beyond that, he must know how to teach this. In our day we have seen pedagogy,—the word and the thing,—appear above the horizon. The learned man goes down before the pedagogue, and to the pedagogue the future belongs.

We have heard lamentations over the disappearance of the ancient college president, that noble and venerable figure that we still remember as the unsurpassed type of human wisdom and authority. Our sons, we are sure, see no such impressive personage about those college halls. But the college president of the old time was fated to disappear as the clergy lost their ancient, social rank and prestige, and as women began to come to college and to become college presidents themselves. Nothing makes or saves an executive officer to-day except executive ability. This faculty has disengaged itself from scholarship as being, in some sort, inconsistent with it; the president must now be eminently a business man, and the business man is in no way imposing to the imagination. Executive ability is not supposed to be conferred by any educational process. Much as we owe to education, we have no expectation that a highly educated person will be specially competent to manage affairs. Much as we esteem scholarship, we have no expectation that a very scholarly person will be especially skilful in teaching our children. In this specialization of functions and capacities, pure learning has declined in honor. Power of some sort, skill to do something for men, whether spiritually or materially, has come uppermost.

Now the high schools, in their earliest form were evidently intended either to fit boys for the early colleges, or to subserve the interests of learning. The former aim was the prior one in time and determined largely the way in which the latter should take form and substance. The obvious way in which to hand down knowledge to the next generation was to provide that teachers possessing this knowledge should directly convey it to the youth who should assemble about them. This was the chief aim of the secondary school,—the imparting of knowledge. Other aims slowly grew into the consciousness of educators and of their critics. A standard slur upon the prevalent teaching came to be a comparison of it with the act of pouring into a vessel. The pupil was the vessel and had a passive part in the operation. The etymology of *educo* was thought of and brought much into notice as a suggestion of better methods. Meanwhile the body of existing knowledge was growing to vast proportions. The epitome of it, which the original course of study had tried to embrace, was ceasing to be, in any sense whatever, a compendium, or representative on a reduced scale, of the systematized knowledge of the race. The conception of learning, as an entity having recognizable boundaries, traversable in thought, and in some sort attainable by diligence and genius within a lifetime, grew indistinct, and may now be said to be obsolete. The fading away of such a fundamental conception left the schools somewhat in the lurch and destitute of a standard of faith, so that, when new sciences and arts came to plead for admission to their programmes, they had no resisting power, but could only point to the crowded condition of their schools and ask what existing studies could be thrown away to make room for new ones. Without a determining principle for its foundation, the school was insecure both in its own aims and in the affections of the people.

This determining principle is now developing itself, very seasonably for the schools, and promises to furnish them what they needed both theoretically and practically,—a good philosophy or *raison d' etre,* and a good course of study.

It is no longer customary to speak of putting or keeping a study in the programme for the sake of honoring the study, or because mankind owe that study a debt. The school is for the sake of the pupils, and not for the sake of science. The pupils are going to live in this present world, and not in the past. The pupils are not destined for the cloister. nor are they to be protected from the competitions of modern life. They are destined to earn their living by being useful in some way to their fellows amid the struggles of rivalry in a restless, trading, investigating age. The oldest schools were established by the church, for ecclesiastical purposes. The schools to-day are maintained by the State for civil purposes. But the modern State recognizes that civil purposes coincide at every point with what should be the personal aims of the individual, and that the highest good of the individual is, therefore, the ultimate end of the schools.

In what does the highest good of the individual consist? We might analyze this highest good under four rubrics, and specify: First, a moral aim, —the discipline of the conscience; second, an æsthetic aim,—the culture of the taste; third, a purely intellectual aim,—the training of the mind to action, or the development of power; fourth, a practical aim, or the furnishing of the mind with the means, or the tools, of knowledge. I suggest this analysis as one of the commonplaces of current philosophizing about educational values, and because its obviousness makes it a good starting-point in discussing courses of study. But the analysis is one that can be made in thought only. No lines can be drawn among the various school studies, partitioning them strictly in separate divisions.

The moral aim, the one to which we should agree in giving precedence over all the rest, can hardly have any study at all assigned to it, but is involved with the school discipline, properly so called, and with those ministrations of a serious-minded teacher which cannot be prescribed in any manual. It would need an entire hour for its due discussion, and does not come within the scope of this paper.

The other three aims,—the æsthetic, the intellectual and the practical,—are involved with each other in such intricate ways, that the most we are able to say regarding them is that certain of them are subserved in a greater degree by certain studies than by others. We cannot, for example, name a study,—not even penmanship or book-keeping,—that issues merely in skill and becomes merely a practical tool. We cannot name a study,—not even geometry or algebra,—that results in pure mental training, or power. We cannot name a study,—not even drawing or literature, or poetics,—whose sole outcome is æsthetic culture. Still, it is well to bear in mind some analysis of values, to keep ourselves well oriented as to the bearings of our work, and to enable us to perceive somewhat closely what elements a course of study is about to lose or gain under proposed change.

The æsthetic aim is not likely to be neglected so long as the present strong popular tendency exists in favor of the study of English and of drawing. Under the head of English it is becoming more and more the custom to prompt pupils to read imaginative works adapted to their capacity. This study should go through an entire high school course, however long this may be. A methodic in reading is getting itself established, and what only teachers of rare and peculiar literary culture at first, knew, namely, where a great variety of reading matter suitable for youth could be found, is becoming the common property of all. Publishers feel the demand and respond to it liberally. The books are cheap and well selected. As soon as a child can read, the function of the old-fashioned reading-book ceases. Thereafter he must read books, and when he has read one book, read another. I cannot conceive a high-school reading book; but a high school library, or a public library accessible, and easily and generously accessible to high-school pupils, is to me not only conceivable, but, as a teacher of English, altogether indispensable.

Whether our pupils are destined in after life to read Latin is at least questionable; they are quite likely to want to read French and German, but that they will read English books is the most certain thing in the world. Probably books will be to them hereafter almost their only source of knowledge. Therefore they should have great practice in the use of books in school, and that too in such ways as may be used fruitfully in mature life. A great amount of cursory reading is needed to correct the influence of the slow process of lesson-learning from text-books.

Another study that depends upon much reading, and refuses to be confined within a text-book is history. History also should begin with the course and go to the end of the course, with this modification, however, that in the last year history may give way to the allied topics of government and political economy. The number of hours a week in history and English would of course be small, perhaps three for the two, as they imply a far greater time devoted to books in solitude than to recitation. From the nature of the case, literature and history depend on a habit of reading, long continued and kept up spontaneously from his own inner impulse, by the reader. Hence for both these studies much time must be taken, but this need not all be school time, and need not be a long period daily, if the studies are conceived as lasting during the entire course of the school.

I am tempted to enter upon a discussion of the new methodic in history and literature, but shall abstain; saying only that nowhere else does modern improvement over old methods show itself in a more conspicuous manner. The new spirit in these studies is the same that in physics and chemistry sends the learner into the laboratory, in botany sends him to the plants, and in zoology, to the animals. Once a high school aspired to possess a costly collection of physical and chemical apparatus, and had a text-book or two in history. The times change. Now the costly apparatus is in disrepute, home-made apparatus serves the purpose better; and the text-book in history, the dry compend that we all know, with its few, or its many, dreary, unmeaning illustrations, with its utter lack of literary form, and its dead, uninspiring style,—this *vade mecum* of the pupil in his walks homeward and schoolward, committed to memory page by page and hence never really learned,—the text-book of history is giving way to the library, with its collection of authors of repute, its historical literature, its sources of historical knowledge. And the function of the teacher is no longer to be that of a hearer of recitations, but rather that of a guide through the labyrinthine literature of the subject, and not of guide only, but of interpreter and inspirer as well.

When we get our pupils engaged in fruitful and interesting courses of reading, and, bearing in mind that reading takes time and can at best go on but slowly, arrange their studies in such a way that this necessary time can be had, and bring them at once into that attitude of mind, and into that well-furnished condition of mind, which are favorable for composition writing. And just as the reading of literature and of history should be perennial, though, of course, diversified, throughout the course, so composition-writing should always go along with them and get from them much of its material. The compositions will be largely in lieu of recitations, as showing how faithfully and thoroughly work has been done. In fact, this should be the chief object in getting a written exercise from the pupil, namely, to show the content and the manner of working of his mind.

Most valuable in the sum of a man's mental acquirements is the habit of recognizing the central idea of a paragraph, a chapter, a sermon, or an essay. Pupils therefore, having read something definite and capable of yielding to their analysis a clearly separable kernel of thought, should be held to the duty of abstracting this inner nucleus and giving it back in simpler form. This makes an excellent exercise in English writing, and is an equally good discipline in thinking. Such exercises should be as frequent as original compositions. According to the pupil's stature, of course, must be the arduousness of the tasks set him; but one prime quality of such work as I am describing is that it furnishes an unlimited range of degrees of difficulty, and is appropriate to every era of school life.

I have spoken elsewhere of the way in which forms and names persist long after they have lost their meaning. Doubtless the institutions of the upper step of our primary education will still be called grammar schools even when the declining study of English grammar shall have declined from them utterly and left not a rack behind. Named originally from the predominance in the founders' minds of Latin grammar as the great foundation of education, they will still be called grammar schools when neither Latin nor any other grammar shall be left in them. I am imagining a continued decadence of this study, which, however, I am not so sure will take place. My own view is that the abridgment of English grammar in the schools has gone far enough, and that conservatism on our part is now in order. But even if that very elementary English grammar now left in grammar schools is still kept there, I am clear that a more advanced course in this study ought to appear in the programme of the high school. I recommend this in the interest of that line of studies of which, for school purposes, grammar is the most elementary stage, and mental and moral science the most advanced. And I recommend it because I cannot, from such observation and inquiry as I have been able to make, come to any other conclusion than that mental and moral science themselves, as usually pursued, with systematic text-books embracing epitomes of these departments of science, should not have a place in secondary education.

Originally given a place in the schools because they were parts of human knowledge, these difficult and abstruse sciences have been retained there from inertia rather than from the conviction that they become parts of the knowledge of the pupils. I find this conviction not quite universal among teachers in Massachusetts, but very nearly so and growing more and more so from year to year. I believe no new high-school courses have been planned recently to include these subjects. The State Board of Education, of Massachusetts, with its secretary, Mr. Dickinson, published, in 1885, an ideal high-school course without mention of them, and a high-school course planned in 1884 by President Eliot omits them equally. These omissions excite no remark, but represent the public sentiment of the community to which the courses were offered.

According to our analysis of educational aims, we should have to think of mental and moral science as contemplating chiefly the discipline of the intellect, or power. If we could not sub-divide this aim into two or three kinds, but were compelled to assign to these studies precisely the same species of discipline that comes from the study of mathematics or of natural science, it would be sufficient simply to remove them from the programme. But these studies have their own peculiar value in the habits of mind which they tend to beget, and in the circumstance that, verging well into the domain of our fourth class of aims,—the practical one,—they yield results of very wide application in the life of every thinking person. In fact, they have the efficacy to determine an element of thoughtfulness in the individual. They are, perhaps, more than other studies, the foundation of sobriety and fairness of judgment, of the habit of considering the end in every course of action, and of the ability to detect and compare unseen relations.

Recognizing so great a value as pertaining to sciences of the mind in a school course, and yet denying that systematic, compendious treatment of them in their pure form is fruitfully possible in view of the immaturity of our pupils' minds, I must state briefly in what modified form I would have them appear. And I would lay down as a principle that we should seek, for our purposes, those points of the abstract sciences where they are least abstract, that is, where they touch concrete things and have practical bearings. Now, English grammar, pursued as a science, meets these conditions. The words, phrases, and sentences are concrete things: their relations are invisible, abstract things. The detection, comparison, naming of these relations is an eminently suitable exercise for an earlier high-school year; and if grammar is begun in the grammar school, I would have it continued, in an advanced form, in the high school also. Grammar will naturally be followed by rhetoric, which, in a peculiar manner, has both a theoretical and a practical side, and leads to a consideration of still subtler aspects of speech than does grammar, such as qualities of style and figures of speech. Rhetoric will also have its intimate relations to composition-writing and declamation. The pupil becomes not merely a student of rhetoric, but a practitioner of it; becomes a critic of himself as well as of others, and being held to give reasons for his judgments, has to practice thinking, which is what above all things we aim to get him to do.

There remains, of the mediæval trivium, the study of logic, some of whose elements could be taught our classes of the last year with better hopes than can psychology and ethics. Logic also has to do with language, but in still severer ways than grammar or rhetoric. We still cling to tangible symbols. We do not yet call for introspection and ask the pupil to study his own mind, but we do ask him to think about thought as having form in speech, and we ask him to practice the art of reasoning. Distrusting my own inclination to recommend something of logic for incorporation in a high-school course, I sought counsel of a friend,—a professor of philosophy at one of our State universities, who has had abundant secondary experience, and holds a foremost rank both in this country and abroad as a master of philosophical science. And I will quote to you what this expert says about the parts of logic that could be taught secondary pupils, premising that he does not say it till after he has, in very emphatic language, denied the wisdom of trying to teach these pupils mental and moral science proper. He would have such a course in logic embrace "the most mechanical and fixed parts of formal logic, treated from the standpoint of the incorporation of thinking in language."

"On this basis the strictly formal—not the real—distinction between terms, propositions, and arguments might be set forth and committed to memory and applied to examples. The form-character of division, and its formal rules; the same of definition, the simple formal relations of propositions and conversion, opposition and permutation; and the form of the syllogism, categorical, conditional, and disjunctive, with the figuring and modalizing of the first, and the mode-forms of the two latter, including in each case thorough apprehension, and after memorizing of the rules for valid form and of the corresponding formal fallacies and their technical names."

Does it not seem that, as the result of a course of secondary education, our young men and women should be capable of consecutive thought, and, more than that, should, as a habit, be inclined to think? As the trained naturalist sees resemblances in animals and plants, so he also who has had a good education,—which is a good all-around training,—should approach a somewhat complicated question in human affairs; in politics, for example, in morals, in religion; he should come to a new study, like pedagogy or psychology, with a mind prepared to appreciate the subtle relations of the parts of such subjects, to avoid hasty conclusions or the accepting of opinions from others, and to insist on correct reasoning from all the premises.

Now such mental habits are engendered in learners, under teaching according to right methods, in any studies whatever; but I submit that before the school course is ended, the pupil should have been brought somewhat closely to consciousness of the processes of thought, at least so much so as is implied in the opinion about teaching logic which I have quoted.

Thus far I have discussed a group of studies that seem to arrange themselves under the head of English, with more or less relevancy to that designation. These would seem to be the most important studies of the programme of secondary schools, and should have from a fourth to a third of the entire school time of the course, besides determining pretty much all the out-of-school reading and the home lessons. To use another mediæval term, the humanistic aim of education is to be attained in this range of studies. That which was sought by the eager scholars of the renaissance in the ancient literatures our high-school youth must find in their own literature.

As this point needs to be clearly understood, let us consider for a moment the original and the present meanings of the word *humanism.*

By their word *humanitas* the later Romans translated the Greek παιδεία, *education. Humanitas,* therefore stood for the intellectual condition of the nobly cultivated freeman in aristocratic contrast to the unhumanity, *immanitas,* of the rude barbarian, and to the education of the workman which aimed only at external gain. Now the *humanity* of the Romans depended on the study of the Greek poets and philosophers, and so came to have the wider meaning of literary culture generally. In this sense it was used from the time of Petrarch as the watchword of those men who, after the decline of the sciences and of the absurd language of scholasticism, went back to the classical writings of Greece and Rome. These men were therefore called *humanists,* their intellectual aim was called *humanism,* and they themselves named philological studies, *studia humaniora.*

The great historical epoch which we call the renaissance, or the new birth of civilization, of education, of human thought generally, found at once its stimulus and its satisfaction in the classic literatures of Greece and Rome. The word *humanities* was at hand, with its obvious and imposing etymology, with its established meaning in Roman usage. It took root in the terminology of learning and has served all these generations, and is still serving the present one, as a whole argument in itself. The men to-day who insist that the ground-work of all education above the primary must be the classic languages, still call themselves humanists apparently begging the whole question with their very name, and reducing their opponents to the necessity of accepting the negative epithet, *non-humanists,* or some such ill-fitting one as *modernists.* But let us clear up matters. Humanism meant at first, education in the best thought of the human race as this best thought took form in the most beautiful literary productions. But humanism means to-day education in what was the best thought of the human race five hundred years ago, as appearing in what were, up to that time, the best literary productions. The strict humanist ignores modern times, ignores modern literatures, ignores Europe and America. I could cite to you the most extravagant expressions, from humanists now teaching youth, of contempt for modern thought, modern poetry, modern art, modern science. The early humanist learned Latin as the absolutely necessary medium through which to come into relation with the thought of his contemporaries. He never thought of Latin as a precious discipline. He got his Latin as quickly as he could, just as you and I would get Turkish as quickly as possible, if suddenly we were compelled to live and do business in Constantinople, or as we should learn French, if sent on a diplomatic mission to Europe. The mediæval man had no literature about him to respond to the stirrings of his mind except the literatures of Greece and Rome, then recently re-discovered and coming before the world with all the impressiveness of novelty. There were to him no modern languages and literatures. Every impulse of his soul urged him to master the ancient languages, or, at least, Latin. In Latin spoke his contemporaries, if, like him, they had been stirred by the great secular movement and had thoughts to utter. Not to know Latin so as to read it, to carry on disputations in it, to write it, was to be left behind the times, to remain rude and ignorant. Not to know Latin was to lack the fundamental condition of all culture. One's native speech was the vulgar idiom. Philosophy, poetry could not speak this vulgar speech. Not only was the vocabulary of the vulgar idiom inadequate for literary and scientific use, but to admit the people, the *vulgus,* to the sanctuary of learning would be to profane the temple. But I need not go further in characterizing the renaissance era. As the birth-time of the modern world it is well understood by all readers of history.

But consider how completely the conditions in which humanism had its origin have given place to conditions in which a simulacrum of humanism has to cast about for strange arguments to justify its retention of the externals of the humanistic ritual. The ancient literatures still exist, but they do not exist alone. They have remained what they were in Petrarch's day; but in the very country of Petrarch has grown up a literature already far more extensive that what has come to us of its progenitor, the literature of the Romans; and not only more extensive, but more interesting, more abounding in philosophy, in poetry, in history, as well as rich in those modern departments of thought of which the ancient literary world had nothing. To nine-tenths of modern cultivated men and women Italian is a more valuable possession than Latin. I need only mention the immense modern literatures of England, France, and Germany. All these surround the modern seeker after knowledge, each speaking its vulgar idiom, each growing from day to day, and always piquing the curiosity as to what will be its next contribution to the great human interests,—to science, poetry, history, politics, philosophy, art, education. No modern scholar speaks Latin outside monastic or ecclesiastic precincts; or writes Latin, except as an in-door school gymnastic or amusement, or as a *tour-de-force*, to prove perchance one's scholarship, that is, one's ability to do what need not be done at all.

The conditions, in short, are all changed. Yet the studies which the elder humanists pursued because there were no others to answer their desires, we pursue because the elder humanists pursued them, and with laborious effort to account to ourselves for our practice. They sought to read the ancient literatures, and to that end learned the languages. They would not have understood the modern plea that the use of the ancient languages is in the discipline of their acquisition. They would not have understood the anomaly that a language should be studied with labor and the literature thereafter not be read. Wholly unintelligible to them would have been the argument that the ancient languages should be studied because they exhibit the etymologies of words in modern languages. Strange would have seemed to them the practice of studying a language which there would never be an opportunity to speak, or to hear, or to write, and which, for lack of interest, would practically never, in the course of a life-time, be read. In short, the renaissance impulse has died out, but the renaissance forms remain. These forms dominate our thought as well as our practice. They dominate our practice and cause us to carry each year through the Latin rudiments thousands of youths who, we were sure when we began, would never go beyond the rudiments. These forms dominate our thought and cause us to believe that this superficial study of elementary Latin, with a few pages of Latin books, read in minute portions, with perpetual use of dictionary and other helps, has contributed to culture some vital portion which could be had in no other way.

The ancient humanistic aim,—to come liberally and intimately into contact with the best thought of the race so expressed in the most beautiful forms,—is still a good principle to govern a large portion of the education of youth. But we are more happily situated than were the ancient humanists. No unknown language interposes between us and a good part of the best thought of the race as expressed in most beautiful forms. Let us acknowledge ourselves beholden to our native tongue for the best that is to be striven for in education. Such has been the way of all the great peoples. Such is in truth our own way now, for the modern world has driven the ancient world into a corner of our schools, where it does indeed consume too much of our time and energy, but gives no real color to the prevailing culture.

Ex-president Porter has said he would not recommend the study of Latin to young persons for whom there was no prospect that they would carry it far enough to read with ease the less difficult Latin authors. The principal of a famous Latin school in which boys study Latin six years considers that his boys do not learn to read Latin. They pass college admission examinations, however, with marked success. Many opinions come from Germany to the effect that, after nine years of such application and singleness of devotion to Latin as are unknown in this country, the gymnasiasts still cannot read Latin, and all sorts of testimony agree that German graduates, like American ones, school days once over, do not read Latin.

To leave out of the discussion those college requirements that call for some modicum of Latin preparation which the schools seem to provide, let me speak of the course of our high schools, which is to be final for those who take it, and which has two, or three, or four years of Latin. I would ask seriously, Is such a course as this worth the while ? I know it is defended by men whose judgment cries in the top of mine; nevertheless, I have good company in my position ; and while the limits of my paper forbid me to specify names, as I might by the score, I would say that an educational movement of significant proportions is developing in Germany, Switzerland, France, and Sweden, with which my query, with its implications, is in full harmony.

For intending students of certain departments of science and art, and for intending practitioners of certain professions, Latin is necessary. It is necessary to the philologist, to the investigator in history, to the student of theology or of ancient law. But for all these *much* Latin is needful, and these persons will naturally resort to universities and elect Latin courses for their special purposes.

Then it will be said that there is so much Latin floating about, that every person who reads anything is liable to meet with quotations or formulas in that language. This comes nearer to a genuine argument for teaching some portion of Latin than any other reasons we have heard adduced. Still it would seem hardly worth the while to undertake the great labor of mastering the Latin rudiments for an object no more important than this.

As to the assumed disciplinary value of Latin as a school study, let it be noted that this is wholly a modern argument that has all the marks of a device invented to prop a declining cause. Such it appeared to August Böckh, author of "The Public Economy of the Athenians," who, in very emphatic language, denounces the claim that the ancient languages have any unique disciplinary value, and goes so far as to say he would have them expelled from the schools, if disciplinary value is all that can be ascribed to them. And Madvig, author of the well-known Latin grammar, expressly takes occasion in his writings to utter a warning against the prevalent overestimation of linguistic studies generally, as school disciplines, and against the current assumption that Latin is superior in this respect to the modern languages. These great scholars would have the ancient languages taught for their historical value, that is, for the uses to which a scholar may put them when he has learned them well; and they would not know how to realize this value unless by knowing the languages fluently, so that reading them in mass should be as easy as reading any modern language. The presuppositions of modern culture are in ancient culture, we hear it said; and the assertion is so true that it is a truism. But what relation has this truth to the culture of our high-school pupils, with their slight touch of their ancient languages? The Germans and the French give their girls no Latin, but teach their boys a great deal more than we teach our boys. Our practice for both sexes comes much nearer to the European practice for girls: we come nearer to zero in the amount of Latin we give boys and girls than we do to any degree of mastery of the language. One would hardly say that Dr. Mätzner's school for girls in Berlin, the famous Luisenschule, with its thorough teaching of English and French, leaves the girls linguistically poorer than does our high school with its petty Latin and whatever of modern languages it may add to this Latin. The fact is, the German school leaves its girls linguistically richer than does the American, richer for all purposes of intellectual enjoyment, with larger access to the stores of human knowledge.

I am well aware of the strong existing popular prepossession in favor of Latin. *Apropos* of this popular tendency I would cite the result of certain statistics gathered, I think, at Yale college, as to the employments or professions of students' fathers; fathers whose professions imply classical training send their sons in considerably larger proportion to the scientific school than do the fathers whose employments suggest the absence of such culture. *Omne ignotum pro magnifico.* It is to be noted also that the modern movement in Germany is altogether in the hands of scholars of classical training, while the gymnasia are crowded with the sons of *parvenu* families anxiously aspiring to the social standing that, in the artificial system of Germany, a gymnasial education confers.

For such reasons I recommend that the real humanistic aim,—to which, be it noted, I distinctly give my homage,—be attained by that range of studies which, earlier in my paper, I grouped about English as a centre.

Of foreign languages I would recommend only one, unless, indeed, a second might be reserved for such pupils as are abundantly capable of additional work, in accordance with a principle which may well govern high school programmes, to allow opportunities for exceeding the theoretical *quantum* as often as this seems wise.

So I would urge that French be taught throughout the course, and that it have very nearly, if not quite, one daily exercise. Four years of French should issue in a very practical mastery of the language, a precious possession for life, a tool that improves by use and serves for the acquisition of knowledge and for the enjoyment of beauty. And here I would suggest that the linguistic outfit of a pupil who has studied one language four years is probably better than it would be if he had divided his time between two languages. The incentive to subsequent study of a second and a third language will be greater, if one language is already fully possessed, and its usefulness as a means of culture and enjoyment is fully appreciated. It remains for me to say in very few words what I have to suggest about the studies of the mathematical and the scientific groups.

Of the natural sciences we think of human physiology, taken in connection with its related subject, hygiene, as the most practically useful. This can also be made as interesting as it is useful. There are the still related studies of zoology and botany, the best fitted of all high-school branches of science to enlist the interest of youth. These three studies, with the simplest elements of physics proper, might occupy four hours a week during two years of the course, so that pupils who do not complete the course might yet leave the school with the largest possible stock of useful acquisition in science.

During the last two years should come a thorough laboratory course of physics. Whether this should be followed by a similar thorough course in chemistry, or whether the time remaining after the physics should be divided between chemistry in its more elementary aspects, zoology, and astronomy, I will not try to decide. It is a matter that may well be left to the enthusiasm and competency of the teachers, or to what may be the special equipment of the schools.

The traditional arrangement of the mathematical studies, by which arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry succeed in this order, each as if it were an isolated whole, and, as a whole, preparatory to what follows, is giving way, I think, to sounder ideas, as very clearly it should. Algebra may well overlap arithmetic considerably, and applied geometry should accompany both arithmetic and algebra from a period long antedating the arrival of the pupil in the high school. The trouble with the American teacher is that his habits are fixed too rigidly on the idea that he must have a definite year or term for each study, and a text-book that shall enable him to assign lessons and hear them conveniently. The lesson-assigning and lesson-hearing habit once broken up, and courses of study made a little flexible, the teacher will have recourse to the Rosminian principle of making the tasks imposed suit exactly the "order of intellections" in which his pupils are at any time, and the "supreme principle of method" will begin to govern school procedures.

It is not well to bring a class that has no geometrical training at all up to Legendre, or Chauvenet, or Wentworth. A previous familiarity with the conceptions of geometry, such as may be got with great delight to the learner from a book like G. A. Hill's "Geometry for Beginners,"—not all at once, of course, but during the two or three years preceding the taking up of the harder book,—will make the Euclidian geometry easy when it comes, and that too while enhancing its disciplinary value.

I leave this discussion of the mathematical part of the high-school course, with an urgent request to my hearers to acquaint themselves without delay with the monograph on "Mathematical Teaching," by Prof. T. H. Safford, published by D. C. Heath & Co. This little book appears none too soon. High-school methods in mathematics are not in a condition to reflect honor on high-school teachers. The pending reforms in this department are outlined by Prof. Safford with clearness, but with a brevity that suggests the desirableness of a larger treatise on the subject, in the elaboration of which secondary teachers also should have a part.

In concluding this attempt to point out desirable and possible modifications of the usual course of American high schools, I wish to leave no occasion for misunderstanding. The colleges will always offer courses requiring antecedent preparation in Latin and Greek, and many colleges will for some time offer no others. It is right that the high schools should prepare for college, and I simply leave out of my present consideration such extrinsic necessities of the case as this relation to the colleges brings to pass. I have considered only the high school course proper, which is the final education of many more American youth than can go to college; and I have thus limited my field all the more willingly because the colleges are showing a great readiness to accommodate their requirements to any good preparation, and the traditional belief in one or two historical studies as essential to a liberal education is passing away.

I must insist that my first group of studies which centre round the English language and its literature is the truly humanistic group. Through these studies we shall lead our pupils into antiquity; through these studies we shall touch most liberally the spiritual things, as distinguished from the material things in human life; through these studies we shall attain both discipline of the mind and culture and exaltation of the soul.

PROCEEDINGS

—AND—

ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, Wednesday, July 13, 1887.

The Department of Higher Instruction of the National Educational Association met in Webber Music Hall at 2.30, P. M., Dr. William A. Mowry presiding.

A committee, appointed at an informal meeting of college presidents and professors, made through its chairman, President Charles A. Blanchard, the following report as to action desirable in order to secure reduced rates on railways for students :

CHICAGO, July 16, 1887.

To Western Passenger Agents' Association, Chicago, Illinois,

DEAR SIR: The undersigned presidents and professors of colleges and universities beg leave respectfully to represent that the colleges of this region do not, as it seems to us, have from the companies included in your association the consideration which the facts in the case would justify.

We are building up institutions of learning attended, in the United States, by more than sixty thousand students. Of these thousands are within the territory covered by your lines. They generally travel over your roads six times each year, and at our anniversary and other public occasions many parents and friends also travel for school purposes only. Thus we hold three great educational meetings each year, attended by many thousands who have no business engagements, but are simply going to and from college.

We learn that your association grants reduced rates to church gatherings, military organizations, secret societies, and educational meetings lasting a few days, but to the colleges which are the fountains of the educational systems of the world, which furnish a large share of the professional men who lead society in all lines of advancement and which stimulate every legitimate industry in the towns where they are located, are granted no special rates.

We understand that railway companies are organized for the purpose of making money, and that the special rates above mentioned are granted because your association believes that more money can be made on the low rate than on the higher one. It is precisely on this ground that we ask for the favor hereinafter mentioned.

Many elements come in to determine where young men and women attend college. Denominational relations, family ties, the purposes of other students, etc, all have their place; but it is doubtful if any of these are more powerful than the question of railway transportation. Students are not money makers. Many of our brightest youths are poor, and excursion rates would enable them to choose their places of study much more freely than they now can. Such rates would also induce many to leave home for institutions of learning, who now remain away and cause those who spend short vacations in their college towns to visit their homes at such seasons.

These thousands of students and the greater number of friends who visit them would average longer routes under the proposed than under the present system, and thus the railway companies would increase their own receipts while reciprocating the advantages conferred by the colleges of the country. We, therefore, request that all colleges having faculties of at least six professors, and an annual attendance of at least one hundred and twenty-five students, be allowed a one-half rate for said professors and students in going to and returning from said institutions.

We admit the possibility that dishonorable persons should abuse these privileges and the propriety of such checks and guards as your honorable body may arrange, but it seems to us that honorable institutions and students should have the reduction indicated and for them we make the request.

(Signed.)

Chas. A. Blanchard,	Pres. Wheaton College,	Wheaton, Ills.
H. A. Thompson,	Prof. Otterbein University,	Westerville, O.
S. R. Thompson,	Prof. Westminster Col.	Westminster, Pa.
Darien A. Straw,	Prof. Wheaton College,	Wheaton, Ills.
J. R. Holmes,	Instr. Yankton College,	Yankton, Dak.
W. H. Scott,	Pres. Ohio State Univer.,	Columbus, Ohio.
C. M. Lowe,	Prof. Wheaton College,	Wheaton, Ills.
J. F. Kellogg,	Prof. Northwestern Univ.,	Evanston, Ills.
S. H. Peabody,	Regent University of Ills.,	Champaign, Ills.
Wm. F. King,	Pres. Cornell College,	Mt. Vernon, Ia.
J. L. Nichols,	Prof. Northwestern Col.,	Naperville, Ills.
H. F. Fisk,	Prof. Northwestern Univ.,	Evanston, Ills.
S. S. Laws,	Pres. Univ. of State of Mo.,	Missouri.
W. W. Harsha,	Pres. Bellevue College,	Bellevue, Neb.
W. R. Shuey,	Prof. Westfield College,	Westfield, Ills.
C. J. Albert,	Prof. Evangelical College,	Elmhurst, Ills.
C. A. Reamer,	Hillsdale College,	Hillsdale, Mich.
Jas. W. Strong,	Pres. Carlton College,	Northfield, Minn.
H. H. Rassveiler,	Pres. North Western Col.,	Naperville, Ills.

J. C. Hutchinson,	V. Pres. Monmouth Col.,	Monmouth, Ills.
J. V. N. Standish,	Lombard University,	Galesburg Ills
Nathaniel Butler,	Prof. Univer., State Ills.,	Champaign, Ills.
H. A. Fischer,	Prof. Wheaton College,	Wheaton, Ills.
E. S. Peake,	Instr. Ingram Univ.,	New York.
L. R. Thompson,	Prof. Purdue University,	La Fayette, Ind.
Wm. G. Williams,	Ohio Wes and University,	Delevan, Ohio.
Irwin Shepard,	Pres. State Normal School,	Winona, Minn.

The recommendations of the Committee were approved by the department.

A committee on nominations was appointed by the chair as follows:—H. A. Thompson, of Ohio, L. S. Thompson, of Pennsylvania, and W. F. King, of Iowa.

In the absence of Miss Alice E. Freeman and President A. J. Anderson, who were to have presented papers, it was decided to hold but one session of the department the present year.

A paper entitled "The Place of Literature in the College Course," was then read by Mr. Homer B. Sprague, of San Francisco, Cal. The paper was briefly discussed by ex-President Andrews, of Ohio, and Principal Ford, of the Chicago schools.

The report of the committee on "Requisites for Admission to College and for College Degrees" was then presented by the chairman, President H. A. Thompson, of Otterbein University. After a discussion of the paper by Mr. Jerome Allen, of New York, and Prof. Fischer, of Illinois, it was referred to a committee with instructions to report in one year. The chair announced the committee as follows:—H. A. Thompson, of Ohio, Homer B. Sprague, of California, I. W. Andrews, of Marietta College, Ohio, J. L. Pickard, of Iowa State University, W. F. King, of Cornell College, Iowa.

On recommendation of the committee on nominations, the following officers were elected for the ensuing year:—

President—B. A. Hinsdale, of Ohio.

Vice-President—Miss Alice E. Freeman, Wellesley College, Mass.

Secretary—T. H. McBride, of the Iowa State University.

No other business appearing, the department then adjourned.

H. H. FREER,
Secretary.

THE PLACE OF LITERATURE IN THE COLLEGE COURSE.

BY HOMER B. SPRAGUE.

We are met at the outset with the inquiry, What is literature? In its broadest sense, of course, it includes the whole body of written and printed matter. We soon discover, however, that the great mass of such productions has no claim whatever upon our attention. A dozen topics every hour, a thousand every month, a million every age, occupy brief attention, are perhaps of temporary importance, but quickly pass, first into insignificance and then into oblivion. We enter a great library. With pride at the accumulated evidences of mental activity, but with despair at the utter hopelessness of an attempt to read even a single page in every one of the volumes, we sigh for the leisure of Methusaleh, that we might revel in these riches. We promise ourselves that in the next, the immortal life, we shall have time for all. But the moment we look inside the covers of most, the illusion begins to vanish. Hardly two grains of wheat in two bushels of chaff. Books of pettiest rhymes and blankest verse, books of science falsely so called, of philosophies long since dead, forgotten subtleties of the schoolmen, wranglings of nameless politicians, barren controversies in physics and metaphysics; books of feeble fiction, of travels in which the travelers saw nothing, genealogies of kings and horses, unmeaning statistics piled mountain high, speeches in which nothing was said, meditations in which nothing was thought—even the good books, litigation, navigation, and all the others that end in *-ation;* tribal autonomy, dismal economy, infant astronomy, and all the others that end in *-onomy;* bibliography, cosmography, geography, stenography, and all the others that end in *-ography;* mysticism, asceticism, Millerism, Mormonism, transcendentalism, and all the others that end in *-ism;* astrology, hippology, phrenology, necrology, ecclesiology, demonology, and all the others that end in *-ology*,—these had their day, perhaps served a useful purpose, but they are superseded: the new -ology, -ism, etc., expels the old, the life goes out, they pass over to the majority in the catacombs of the great library. Some Caliph Omar makes them useful in after ages as kindling-wood, with the remark that if they reproduce the Koran, they are useless; if they antagonize the Koran, they are pernicious. Or, unearthed by antiquaries after hundreds of years, the fossil may catch the eye of an occasional dry-as-dust pedant, or mousing antiquary, or special investigator; like marks in desert sand or on a pebbly beach, that tell where wind once blew or water flowed; but of the half-million books in a great library to-day, not one in a hundred, perhaps not one in a thousand, has more nutriment for the average reader than have the winds and the clouds.

The reason is, they take no hold of man as a man, and therefore they deal with the transient, not the permanent, and are themselves passing phases, not substantial forms. As Milton declared the squabbles of the Saxon Heptarchy to be of no more value to us than the battles of kites and crows, we may for our present purposes reject as not included under our definition four hundred and ninety-nine out of every five hundred. The leading characteristic, the prime quality of literature, in the restricted sense in which we shall use the term, is *universality*. Such quality, for example, is possessed by Homer's "Odyssey," Dante's "Paradiso," Shakespeare's "Tempest," Cervantes' "Don Quixote." Rooted and grounded in human nature, the work speaks from the heart to the heart, in every language into which it may be translated, and to all men. In a familiar old ballad there is a stanza that illustrates this.

O Helen fair, beyond compare,
I'll wreath a garland of your hair,
Shall bind my heart forevermair.

There is a homely poem of Burns, simple even to childlikeness, not containing a single perfect rhyme; yet while love and beauty and death last, it can never grow old. I quote some of the familiar lines.

Wi' mony a vow and lock'd embrace
Our parting was fu' tender,
And pledging aft to meet again,
We tore oursels asunder—
But oh, fell Death's untimely frost
That nipt my Flower sae early!
Now green's the sod and cauld's the clay
That wraps my Highland Mary.

Oh, pale, pale now, those rosy lips
I aft ha' kissed sae fondly,
And closed for aye the sparkling glance
That dwalt on me sae kindly;
And mouldering now in silent dust
The heart that lo'ed me dearly;
But still within my bosom's core
Shall live my Highland Mary!

We may not weep with a distinguished Massachusetts scholar every time we read Homer's catalogue of ships in the second book of the "Iliad," but we do not wonder at young Arthur Stanley's tears in translating to Dr. Arnold another passage in that poem, and surely no day will ever dawn when the parting of Hector and Andromache will fail to stir tender emotion and stimulate to patriotic self-sacrifice.

The distinction which we have thus endeavored to draw between the special and the universal, the transient and the permanent, in answering the question, What is literature? is kindred if not quite identical with that made by De Quincy between what he designates as "the literature of knowledge" and that which he styles "the literature of power." I quote his illustration.*

"What do you learn from Paradise Lost? Nothing at all. What do you learn from a cookery book? Something new, something that you did not know before in every paragraph. But would you therefore put the wretched cookery book on a higher level of estimation than the divine poem? What you owe to Milton is not any *knowledge*, of which a million separate items are but a million of advancing steps on the same earthly level; what you owe is *power*, that is, exercise and expansion to your own latent capacity of sympathy with the infinite, where every pulse and each separate influx is a step upward—a step ascending as upon a Jacob's ladder from earth to mysterious altitudes above the earth. All the steps of knowledge, from first to last, carry you further on the same plane, but could never raise you one foot above your ancient level of earth; whereas the very *first* step in power is a flight, is an ascending into another element where earth is forgotten. . . . The 'Principia' of Newton was a book militant on earth from the first. In all the stages of its progress it would have to fight for its existence. . . . As soon as La Place, or anybody else builds higher upon the foundations laid by this book, effectually he throws it out of the sunshine into the decay and darkness; by weapons won from this book he superannuates and destroys this book. On the contrary the 'Iliad,' the 'Prometheus' of Æschylus, the 'Othello' or 'King Lear,' the 'Hamlet' or Macbeth,' and the 'Paradise Lost,' are not militant but triumphant forever, as long as the languages exist in which they speak or can be taught to speak."

The question might here be asked, If one great work on methematics, or on other technical subject, is displaced by a better, and the better by a better still, and so on; as the steam engine may give way to the electric motor and be at last forgotten; why may not the same disuse and oblivion overtake the masterpieces of literature? We may again quote: "One lovely pastoral valley is not superseded by another, nor a statue of Praxiteles by a statue of Michael Angelo. . . . Human works of immortal beauty, and works of nature, in one respect stand on the same footing; they never absolutely repeat each other; never approach so near as not to differ; and they differ not as better and worse, or simply by more and less; they differ by undecipherable and incommunicable differences that cannot be caught by mimicries, nor be reflected in the mirror of copies; nor become ponderable in the scales of vulgar comparison. . .

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*Essay on Pope, p. 152 et seq.

All the literature of knowledge builds only ground nests that are swept away by flood, or confounded by the plow; but the literature of power builds nests in aerial altitudes of temples sacred from violation, or in forests inaccessible to fraud. *This* is a great prerogative of the *power* literature; and it is a greater which lies in the mode of its influence. The *knowledge* literature, like the fashion of this world, passeth away. An encyclopædia is its abstract; and in this respect, it may be taken for its speaking symbol, that before one generation has passed, an encyclopædia is superannuated, for it speaks through the dead memory and unimpassioned understanding." The makers of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," of Appleton's "New American Cyclopædia," and of Johnson's "Cyclopædia," are driven to issue annual supplements and finally new editions, on penalty of seeing those works grow obsolete, just as Ray's great encyclopædia of half a century ago is buried in dust on old bookshelves. Their usefulness dies and can have no revivification. But not so with the great works that inspire, guide, train human passion, and kindle and sustain lofty sentiment.

These distinctions are vital. "Knowledge is power," says the proverb; he who knows is he who can; even etymology teaches that. Yes; but there are degrees and kinds, differing immeasurably. We are not speaking of wage-earning power, or bread-and-butter-producing power, but soul power. The literature that merely gives information is indeed valuable, so far as it lays a basis of things needful to be known in order to keep these bodies safe and strong and furnishes a gymnastic drill to make the intellect vigorous and keen; but as food for the soul it is the thinnest gruel. The pride, the processes, and the achievements of mere intellect—these change, grow old, are laid at rest; but the heart and its workings and its triumphs live forever. "The things which are seen are temporal; the things which are unseen are eternal." Is not this what St. Paul means? "Whether there be prophecies, they shall fail; whether there be tongues, they shall cease; whether there be knowledge, it shall vanish away." But faith abideth; faith that endures as seeing him who is invisible; hope that anchors the soul in every storm to the moveless throne; and above all, charity, or heart's love, that is yet to fill the universe with joy.

In selecting them from the thousand immortal books among five hundred thousand dead or dying, we shall not err in giving prominence to those that are built on the foundation of human passion, appeal to human sentiments, and so kindle human sympathy, and in using all else mainly as helps to these. This principle of choice will vastly reduce the number to be read.

Still further reduction must be made. Let it be by a vigorous rejection of works that do not possess beauty of style and due proportion of parts. The final sifting must leave us polite literature alone, *belles-lettres.* Each shall be a model of excellence, worthy to be reckoned a triumph of art. The intrinsic worth must be embodied in a graceful form.

And among these, for there may still be hundreds, we must again select. Life is too short and too precious to permit us to feed the soul on any but the most nutritious diet.

Who shall separate for us the little that is really everlasting from the much that is fleeting, the little that is really universal, from the much that is partial, the little that is supremely graceful from the much that is unsymmetrical? Great men fail us here. The best critics cannot be depended upon. They disagree, or are even blind. "There is something touching," says Emerson, "in the madness with which the passing age mischooses the object on which all candles shine and all eyes are turned. . . . . A popular player, nobody supposed that Shakespeare was the poet of the human race. . . . . Bacon, who took the inventory of the human understanding for his time, never mentioned his name. . . . If it need wit to know wit, according to the proverb, Shakespeare's time should be capable of recognizing it. . . . . Since the constellation of great men who appeared in Greece in the time of Pericles, there was never any such society; yet their genius failed them to find out the best head in the universe. The poet's mask was impenetrable. You cannot see the mountain near."*

Says Mrs. Browning:—

We'll suppose
Mount Athos carved, as Persian Xerxes schemed,
To some colossal statue of a man:
The peasants gathering brushwood in his ear,
Had guessed as little of any human form
Up there, as would a flock of browsing goats.
They'd have, in fact, to travel ten miles off
Or ere the giant image broke on them.

Coleridge, in his "Biographia Literaria," declares, in regard to Wordsworth's first appearance as an author, that never was the emergence of a great genius above the horizon more manifest, if they had but eyes to see. "This will never do!" said a great critic, of Tennyson's first attempts. "The poesy of this young lord belongs to the class which neither gods nor men are said to permit," said Lord Jeffrey of Byron. So fared Coleridge himself at first, and Shelley, and Collins, and Gray, and Browning, at the hands of the critics.

The difficulty of selection of the fittest works is further increased by the fact that some are in the border region between the two literatures and partake of the qualities of both. Lowell speaks of the "desolate no-man's land of a religious epic." "Paradise Lost," however, and perhaps "The Light of Asia," should their phases of religious belief turn out to be transient,—limited, say to another thousand years,—have yet in them so much of human interest, of heroism, of tenderness, and of renunciation, appealing to universal man, by Abdiel, by Satan, by Siddartha, and by the Messiah, that they might last for many ages, though the special theology of Protestantism or Buddhism were to pass away. That "desolate no-man's land," as Lowell terms "Paradise Lost," has indeed but two human inhabitants; but they are intensely human. And though it is fanned by the breath of heaven fresh-blowing, and he who visits it looks far out into the ocean of eternity, he yet converses with angels that are but heroic men; and inhaling, in the company of the manliest of authors, the pure atmosphere of the enchanted land, he finds himself stronger for everyday life and duty. He hears, too, as in Prospero's island, a music as yet unequaled in grandeur, a sonorous melody, which, combined with loftiest imagery and tremendous energy, has given to our language the word Miltonic, and which alone would insure the poem immortality.

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*Emerson's Representative Men.

If the opinions of eminent critics are misleading, much more untrustworthy is popular favor. Forty editions of Tupper's "Proverbial Philosophy" were called for by the last generation; but who reads it now? We must wait for the survival of the fittest. When several generations and a thousand critics have viewed the work, not in the humid and many-colored rays of passion or prejudice, but in what Bacon calls "dry light," and have set the author's statue in the Pantheon, we may accept the apotheosis at last.

This test excludes the works of all authors now living. "Let no man be called happy till his death!" A truly great author is not in haste to be canonized. "I can wait a century for a reader, since God has waited six thousand years for an observer," said the greatest of astronomers. Shakespeare betrays no desire for popularity. Milton would have "fit audience, though few." Bacon is content to leave his name and fame till "sometime be passed over."

Our field from which to select for study is thus narrowed to choice productions of the past. But the number of these is still too great for any course of college study. Not a tenth can be thoroughly treated in the allotted time. We must limit ourselves still more. How?

Here we are aided by the unanimous voices of the ages. The great masterpieces of Greece and Rome, of Florence and France, and Spain and Germany, and Great Britain (may I include the United States?) are few. But even these may be too many. Which shall we take, and which leave? This brings us face to face with the question, What is the object in view in the study of literature in college, and what the method?

I think it may be safely answered that the end is the same as in all high art, moral elevation and inspiration through beauty or sublimity. The selections must not only approach perfection in outward form, but they must be types of inward grace, of purity, and of power.

But where shall we find the time in the already crowded curriculum? What studies shall give way?

Relatively, though not absolutely, too much has been made in school and college of mere intellectual keenness and activity. Narrowness and meanness may co-exist with mental sharpness and vigor, as in Mephistopheles and the Devil. Profound scientific theories may make one acute, quick, strong, without conducing at all to mental exaltation, and without any suggestion of social or civil duties. The scientist finds law everywhere, but the law-maker nowhere. Physical science is having a poetic revenge for the general neglect or frequent scorn she has suffered in all the ages past. It is her day of triumph now. Her stupendous progress stamps the century. But shall she think to dominate the whole process of education? In the first place, there is danger of excessive specialization. Universities cannot, much less can colleges, make finished chemists, botanists, engineers, zoologists, or specialists of any kind—but men. A few generalizations are possible, a little outlining of the great fields may be given, a few foundations laid, some methods of investigation shown, students may be told how and where to look. Little else in science can be done. In the next place, we want studies that bear more directly upon the moral conduct of life; studies that touch heart and conscience; that waken sympathy and kindle imagination; studies that recognize the visible world as a symbol of the invisible, a changing vesture, veiling the unchanging goodness and loveliness and power. Well says the Earth Spirit in "Faust,"

"In being's flood, in action's storm
I walk and work, above, beneath,
Work and weave in endless motion—
Birth and death, an infinite ocean—
A seizing and giving the fire of the living—
'Tis thus at the roaring loom of time I ply,
And weave for God the garment thou seest him by."

The scientist at best but studies garments. We want to know the weavers, to know man and to know God. "I would rather," said Thomas Arnold, "that a son of mine believed that the sun went round the earth, than that he should be entirely deficient in knowledge of beauty, of poetry, and of moral truth."

Historical study has always and deservedly been regarded as of importance in a college course. However it may have been formerly, as in the case of natural science, it is hardly possible now that it should here take the form of extensive special examination and critical analysis of minute and multifarious phenomena and documents in limited fields. Rather it must give itself to the investigation of general laws and a synthesis of results on a large scale, and so work out a philosophy of history. In either case, though these studies contain the material from which wisdom may be sublimated, they do not often contain, much less impart, inspiration. We need all three: the knowledge, the wisdom, the inspiration; but especially the last, the high resolve and heroic action growing out of transcendent wisdom.

In connection with historic studies, and to some extent with the study of literature, some practical skill in statecraft should be secured by every student. There is pressing need of this. "A state," says Milton, "ought to be as one huge Christian personage, one mighty growth and stature of an honest man."

Few would diminish the time and pains given to mathematics or to mental or moral philosophy. Perhaps the greatest danger here is somnolence.

Something may be subtracted from the time usually devoted in college to languages. Philosophy and the science of language may well receive attention; and incidentally there will come, with a study of the great models of literary excellence, a rounding out and a finishing up of linguistic work previously begun. But all elementary study of languages ought to be remanded to the secondary schools, and the whole method of the acquisition of ancient and modern languages should be radically changed. To spend six, five, or even four years in obtaining sufficient Latin and Greek for the profitable pursuit of appropriate college studies is largely a waste of time and energy. By proper instruction, by careful and wise direction of labor, pursuing but one language at a time, by contagious ardor caught from the teacher, by judicious assistance daily rendered, by discarding unimportant details and trivial exceptions, and by remembering ever that the object is to enable the student to translate from the ancient language into the English and not the reverse, fully one half of the time ordinarily spent on these studies can be saved. One year rightly used would suffice for Latin, another for Greek, and one each for French, German, and Italian, giving, also, facility in speaking the modern tongues. The time will come when colleges will cease to require candidates not only to be crammed with mere grammatical husks, but even to discriminate among the Attic husks and Ionic husks and Epic husks, as an indispensible prerequisite to admission; and when they will discontinue that unnutritious diet, after matriculation, and in this busy world no longer spend month after month in assiduously uprooting tares and thistles in the hopeless attempt to raise a crop of purely classic husks. "I won't answer any more such nonsense!" said a now famous journalist, inserting an ungentle epithet before the word "nonsense," to the college tutor who, neglecting weightier matters, was torturing him in class recitation, filling his skin with the sharp prickles of Greek accents, impaling him on oxytones and paroxytones and proparoxytones, plying the twists of perispomena and properispomena, tearing his flesh with sarcastic questions about final clauses. Tradition has it that he was obliged to leave *alma mater*, but soon found consolation in a handsome salary as foreign correspondent of a leading New York newspaper.

To furnish the equipment our young men need for active service in the cause of humanity, there is perhaps no other preparation so valuable as the study of the greatest works of the greatest authors. I know there is a prevalent notion that literature is not strengthening. Many years ago I heard a distinguished scholar couple the words "weak" and "literary" as if they belonged together; but his own example proves the contrary: he is both literary and strong. Shakespeare's training, like that of all great writers who preceeded him in ancient or modern times, and he was a good business man, was wholly literary rather than scientific. What did Alexander the Great not owe to Homer? Cæsar knew nothing of what we call science. Napoleon fed on Plutarch more than on gunpowder and mathematics. Milton was chiefly indebted to Homer, Hesiod, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Ovid, Virgil, Spenser, and Shakespeare; Chatham, Burke, and Webster, to Milton: Rufus Choate, the foremost jury lawyer of the past generation, to all of these. The foremost practical statesman in England to-day is the man of letters, William E. Gladstone; the foremost statesman in Europe to-day is a graduate of two universities, Prince Bismarck; the foremost lawyer in America to-day bore off the highest honors for literary excellence at Yale just fifty years ago, and is said to have continued his classical studies ever since, William M. Evarts; one of the ablest of the many able ministers who have represented America at the Court of St. James is our foremost man of letters to-day, James Russell Lowell; our smartest—I use the term designedly—living statesman possesses rare literary skill, James G. Blaine. These examples show that the practical cutting edge of tact is not less keen when it has a heavy backing of solid learning. Did not the pen of Moses largely shape Hebrew civilization? In Greek life and even in Roman, did not the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey" exert enormous power? Is not our highest modern civilization the outgrowth of the Bible? Wordsworth never uttered profounder truth than when he wrote,

> "We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
> That Shakespeare spoke, the faith and morals hold
> That Milton held."

The Bible, Shakespeare, Milton—whoever will thoroughly master these three will have a better business education than nine tenths of our college graduates: for he will have a knowledge of human nature, a knowledge that is better preparation for success than a knowledge of all the laws of matter, and all the processes of machinery, and all the tricks of trade.

But business success is not the principal thing. Nor is the chief object in the study of literature to gain just canons of criticism, important as these are; nor to memorize precious passages that will fulfil the triple function of a touchstone, a keynote, and "a joy forever." Nor is the chief object to learn the history of literature, nor the opinions of any man or set of men about literature, or about any portion thereof, or about the men who produced it. A little of the flavor of the historic sea in which the shell-fish grew; a little of the pepper and salt of wise criticism; a little of the personal history of the bivalve, if we can get it; may not be amiss: these may whet the appetite or enhance the relish; but they are no substitute for the oyster itself.

Neither is the chief object to learn etymology, or syntax, or prosody, or rhetoric, or philology, or logic. These indeed are very valuable, and may perhaps be studied best by making a great author's text the basis of investigation. Our school masters often builded vastly better than they knew when they made us painfully parse Milton's "Lycidas," Pope's "Messiah," or Coleridge's "Hymn to Mont Blanc." While we were intently listening to find grammatical concords, as if that were the chief business of life, and our teacher seemed to think so, we heard faintly at first but by and by more clearly the divine harmony that breathes through those immortal lines, and that could never be rendered entirely inaudible by the noisy machinery of gerund-grinding. While we hacked and hewed and bunglingly dissected the apparently lifeless form, to discover and label etymological tissue, syntactical sinews, logical bone-frame, the *caput mortuum* gradually became a thing of life and beauty, as the cold marble under Pygmalion's chisel grew warm with immortal loveliness.

Neither is that graceful utility which Cicero points out in his oration for Archias, the main thing; the solace, the ornament, the light, the companionship, the serenity of soul which these studies bring. Lowell somewhere prettily says, and the value of the remark can hardly be overestimated: "If they do not help us get bread, they sweeten all the bread we ever do get." This result is very precious, but still secondary: we are here to diffuse not to monopolize, sweetness and light.

To create and maintain in every student the highest ideal of human life is, or ought to be, the chief work of any college. There is no study like that of the best literature to form and glorify such an ideal. It reveals possibilities, touches to finer issues, broadens thought, kindles faith sets the soul free, quickens and greatens, as nothing else can. Get near Homer and Demosthenes and Thucydides and Plato and the Greek tragedians: get near Virgil and Lucretius and Cicero and Tacitus; if you would know

"The glory that was Greece, the grandeur that was Rome."

Arm in arm with a universal author, you are in living contact with the great facts and laws of nature and of human existence; you see them from the master's lofty standpoint and your life is larger than before. A single paragraph of Burke, if chewed and digested and assimilated, much more a great oration like his speech on Conciliation with America, can hardly fail to broaden the horizon and liberalize the soul. Even the daily speech of our fathers, unlike the flippant nothings that fill our mouths, was tinctured with dignity and grace, caught from the fewer but better books with which their minds were saturated, and from companionship with the Chrysostoms and Burkes and Websters, the Shakespeares and Miltons and Johnsons, and the heroic beings that were the children of their brain. He that walketh with wise men shall be wise. The great authors give us their children and give us themselves.

"Ever their phantoms arise before us,
  Our loftier brothers, but one in blood;
At bed and board they lord it o'er us
  With looks of beauty and words of good!"

My time has expired, and I must not now discuss at length the question, How ought the great masterpieces to be studied? It is easier to tell how not to do it. In one of our foremost universities two or three years ago, I was present at a class exercise. They were reading a great writer's works. One member, evidently among those most interested,—for he occasionally glanced at his book,—lay flat on his back at full length directly in front of the distinguished professor and within fifteen or twenty feet of him. The attitude was symbolic; the example was contagious. Was I dreaming? I have been present at many "performances" in English literature in school and college during the last twenty or thirty years, but never at another so dull and dead, nor have I ever breathed an atmosphere more somniferous out of a Chinese "opium joint."

Above all other men the teacher of literature should be intensely alive, not a cistern of stagnant knowledge, but a battery of communicative lightning; the incarnation of tact and vigilance and energy; making every class-exercise a work of high art; seizing instantly the heart of every passage, placing it in vital relation and proper prospective to the writer and the whole composition, focusing all eyes of students upon it, irradiating the subject with flashes of wit, wisdom, poetry, eloquence, parallels drawn from far and near, till the whole masterpiece blazes with all the fire and force and beauty that filled the soul of the author himself.

One word more. The course in literature should begin in the primary school, or even in the kindergarten, with memorizing of the choicest simple pieces. Always the greatest pains should be taken in the selection of passages. This exercise in memory should be carried on continuously and progressively through the grammar schools, with some attempt at logical method—analysis of beauty—in the higher grades. In the high school, it should take the form of thorough study of some of the simpler masterpieces, like Gray's "Elegy" and Scott's "Talisman," Milton's "Comus," Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice." By thorough study is not meant counting syllables, nor scrutinizing orthography, nor affixing a grammatical label to every word, nor distinguishing colons from semicolons, nor tabulating lines spoken by different characters, nor deciding whether the author uses "his" for "its" a hundred times or only ninety-nine, or has seventy-five Anglo-Saxon roots to every twenty-five Latin; nor whether he planted a mulberry tree or paid taxes with the right hand or the left, or had a short nose and a long upper lip, or spoke with mysterious meaning when he said, "It is a wise father that knows his own child;" but to seize, ponder, understand, enjoy, and hold fast, as an inspiration forever, all that is beautiful, or noble, or precious, in the work under consideration. In college, some great work of one of the world authors—Greek, Latin, Italian, French, German, or English—should be constantly under investigation in a weekly, semi-weekly, or, better still, a daily, exercise through the four years, skill being exercised in so marking out the succession that the study may not only progress from the less to the more difficult, but that a tendency toward goodness and greatness may be ever more and more confirmed; the teacher, to use the language of Milton, "tempering them such lectures and explanations, upon every opportunity, as should lead and draw them in willing obedience, inflamed with the study of learning, and the admiration of virtue, stirred up with high hopes of living, to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God, and famous to all ages."

Well did the ancients call this and kindred studies the *humanities*. For, as we have seen, the prime quality of all literature worthy of the name is its deep hold of man as man; and the best is that which appeals most strongly to the highest human qualities; and the special object in view in the study should ever be perfect manliness and womanliness; and the chief joy that accompanies is in the association with heroic manhood and angelic womanhood; and the bes tresult is unselfish service enriching mankind; and the one thing indispensible in him who would teach it is that he be sympathetic, large, sweet-souled, thoroughly equipped, intensely alive, and true. Manliness, in the best sense, is godliness. With the conception of the possible union of the human and the divine, poetry passes into religion; for in that vision which Lowell declares to be the sublimest reach to which poetry has risen—the last lines of Dante's "Paradiso,"—beginning,

"Within the deep and luminous subsistence
Of the High Light appeared to me three circles
Of threefold color and of one dimension,
And by the second seemed the first reflected
As rainbow is by rainbow, and the third
Seemed fire that equally from both is breathed,"

—in this wondrous vision, where the High Light is the very substance of God, and the three luminous revolving circles symbolize the Trinity of the Eternal Power, the Eternal Love, and the Eternal Wisdom, Dante tells us that after gazing for a time on the three, all his sight was gradually absorbed in the second; for there he saw painted our image, the image of *Man*.

REQUISITES FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE, AND FOR COLLEGE DEGREES.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

At a meeting of the Department of Higher Instruction, in Topeka, July 16, 1886, it was agreed that a "committee of seven be appointed by the chair from as many different States, to consider the necessary requisites for admission, and the kind and amount of work which should entitle to the usual college degrees. It shall be the duty of the committee to confer with a similar committee from the Department of Secondary Instruction, in case such a committee is appointed." Dr. H. A. Thompson, of Otterbein University, Ohio; Dr. G. W. Hoss, of Baker University, Kansas; Dr. Jerome Allen, New York City; Prof. T. H. McBride, State University, Iowa; William Preston Johnston, Tulane University, Louisiana; Chancellor Peabody, of Illinois University; and Julius D. Dreher, of Roanoke College, Virginia, were appointed said committee.

Through some delay in the distribution of the proceedings of 1886, the chairman did not secure the names and addresses of the members of the committee until about the first of May. He immediately communicated with them but they were busily engaged in preparation for college commencements, and while interested in the work assigned them were able to render but little assistance. The chairman was authorized to make such report as his time would allow, to be signed by such members of the committee as he should meet in Chicago, who could in the main approve the work done.

The accompanying schedule of studies is submitted in order to keep the work before the department. It is only intended to be preliminary, to be referred back with instructions, or to a new committee to perfect, as the department may determine.

The word *term* as used in the report is intended to mean thirteen weeks of study, with fifteen recitations of one hour each in every week. Three studies will be carried on at the same time, so that nine such terms will make a year's work in the college course, and thirty-six, the four years allowed for college work. In the judgment of those whose names are signed, the studies in kind and amount should constitute the minimum of work which should entitle to each of the degrees specified.

For want of time the question of elections has not been considered.

H. A. THOMPSON,
JEROME ALLEN,
T. H. McBRIDE,
S. H. PEABODY.

FIRST COURSE.

For the Degree of Bachelor of Arts.

PREPARATORY COURSE.

I Latin.—Grammar completed; Cæsar, 4 books; Cicero, 7 Orations; Virgil's Æneid, 6 books; Prose composition; Reading at sight easy Latin.

II. Greek.—Grammar completed; Anabasis, 3 books; Homer's Iliad, 1 book; Prose composition; reading at sight easy passages.

III. Mathematics.—Arithmetic; Algebra through quadratics; Plane Geometry.

IV. History and Science.—U. S. History; Bible History; Outlines of General History; History of Greece; History of Rome; Elementary Physics; Physical Geography.

V. English.—Common branches, including Grammar, Analysis, Elementary Rhetoric; Studies in English Literature; Science of Government; Ancient Geography.

COLLEGE COURSE.

I. Language and Literature.—17 terms as follows:—Latin, 5; Greek, 6; Modern Languages, 3; Rhetoric, 1; English Literature, 2.

II. Mathematics.—5 terms as follows:—Algebra completed; Geometry completed; Trigonometry; Analytical Geometry; Calculus; 1 term each.

III. Natural Science.—6 terms as follows:—Physics; Astronomy; Botany; Chemistry; Physiology; Geology with Mineralogy; 1 term each.

IV. Philosophy.—4 terms as follows:—Psychology; Ethics; Logic; Christian Evidences; 1 term each.

V. History and Political Science.—4 terms as follows:—Modern History, 2; Political Economy; Science of Government; 1 term each.

SECOND COURSE.

For Degree of Bachelor of Philosophy.

PREPARATORY COURSE.

I. Latin.—Grammar completed; Cæsar, 2 books; Cicero, 5 Orations; Prose composition; Latin and reading at sight.

II. German or French.—Equal in amount to Greek of Classical Course.

III. Mathematics.—Arithmetic; Algebra through quadratics; Plane Geometry.

IV. History.—United States; Bible History; Outline History; History of Greece and Rome.

V. Natural Science. — Elementary Physics; Physical Geography; Physiology.

VI. English.—Common branches, including Grammar, Analysis, Elementary Rhetoric; Studies in English Literature; Science of Government; Ancient Geography.

COLLEGE COURSE.

I. Language and Literature.—14 terms as follows:—Latin, 5; Modern Language, 6; Rhetoric, 1; English Literature, 2.

II. Mathematics.—5 terms as follows:—Algebra completed; Geometry completed; Trigonometry; Analytical Geometry; Calculus; 1 term each.

III. Natural Science.—6 terms as follows: — Physics; Anatomy; Chemistry; Botany; Geology with Mineralogy; Zoology; 1 term each.

IV. Philosophy.—7 terms as follows:—Psychology, 2; Ethics, Logic, Christian Evidences, History of Philosophy, Criticism, 1 term each.

V. History and Political Science.—4 terms as follows:—Modern History, 2; Political Economy, Science of Government, 1 term each.

THIRD COURSE.

For Degree of Bachelor of Science.

PREPARATORY COURSE.

I. Latin.—Grammar completed; Cæsar, two books; Cicero, five orations; Latin and reading at sight.

II. German.—Equal to Greek of classical course.

III. Mathematics.—Arithmetic; Algebra through quadratics; Plane Geometry.

IV. History.—United States; Bible History; Outlines of History.

V. Natural Science.—Elementary Physics; Physical Geography; Philosophy.

VI. English.—Common Branches, including Grammar; Analysis; Elementary Rhetoric; Studies in English Literature; Science of Government; and Ancient Geography.

COLLEGE COURSE.

I. Language and Literature.—14 terms as follows:—German, 3; French, 8; Rhetoric, 1; English Literature, 2.

II. Mathematics.—5 terms as follows:—Algebra completed; Geometry completed; Trigonometry, Analytical Geometry, Calculus, one term each.

III. Natural Science.—9 terms as follows:—Physics, 2; Chemistry, 2; Systematic Botany, Geology with Mineralogy, Biology, Inechane's Astronomy, 1 term each.

IV. Philosophy.—4 terms as follows:—Psychology, Ethics, Logic, Christian Evidences, 1 term each.

V. History and Political Science.—4 terms as follows:—Modern History, 2; Political Economy, Science of Government, 1 term each.

PROCEEDINGS

—AND—

ADDRESSES

OF THE

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

COUNCIL CHAMBERS, CITY HALL, CHICAGO, July 14, 1887.

The meeting was called to order at 2.30 P. M. by the president, A. R. Taylor, of Kansas, who delivered the annual address.

Mr. T. J. Gray, of Minnesota, presented the report of the committee on Methods of Instruction in Use in the Normal Schools of the United States.

This report was discussed by J. N. Barnard, of Missouri; J. H. Hoose, of New York; W. A. Bull, of Indiana; Geo. P. Brown, of Illinois; S. S. Parr, of Indiana; Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota; C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri; and others.

On motion of Mr. Norton, the report of the committee was adopted and ordered to be printed.

It was further ordered that a committee be appointed to continue the investigation of the subjects embodied in the report.

The president appointed as such committee, Messrs. Boyden, Gray, and Rounds.

The president announced the following as a committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year: Messrs. Shepard and Barnard.

On motion of Mr. Parr, the president was authorized to appoint a committee to define the terms used in Normal School reports.

The president appointed as such committee, Messrs. Boyden, Gray, and Rounds.

A motion for adjournment till 2.30 P. M., on the following day was carried.

COUNCIL CHAMBERS, CITY HALL, July 15, 1887.

The second session of the Department of Normal Schools was opened by the president at 2.30 P. M.

Charles De Garmo was introduced to the Department as one who had spent three years in Germany in the study of normal and other schools. Prof. De Garmo then read a paper upon "The Normal School System of Germany," which was discussed by F. W. Parker, M. E. Nicholson, J. H. Hoose, W. R. Garrett, W. A. Ball, and others.

The time for discussion having expired, George L. Albee, of Wisconsin, presented a paper upon "Psychology in Normal Schools," W. W. Parsons followed in the discussion which was continued by Messrs. Martin, Baldwin, Hoose, and others.

The committee on nomination of officers for the coming year reported as follows:

President, S. S. Parr, Greencastle, Ind.

Vice-President, R. C. Norton, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Secretary, Miss Rose Schwartz, Oshkosh, Wis.

On motion, the recommendation of the committee was approved, and the above named persons declared to be the officers for the ensuing year.

The meeting then adjourned.

MARY E. NICHOLSON,
Secretary.

ANNUAL ADDRESS.

PRESIDENT A. R. TAYLOR.

The recurrence of our annual meeting suggests many thoughts on the magnitude and importance of our work as teachers in general and as teachers of teachers in particular. There is no profession which is accomplishing anything for mankind, that does not more or less fully realize the dignity and the necessity of its mission. The more profoundly this conception obtains, the more industriously do its members set about the solution of the problems which they meet. No factor proves more effective in awakening this idea than that of the modern convention. What teacher attended the great meeting last night or visited the exposition by the lake-side yesterday, who does not thrill with an enlarged conception of his work and long for a better command of it?

The departmental organization affords an unequalled opportunity for the free exchange of views on specific topics. Such a gathering becomes valuable by virtue of the wide experience and mature wisdom of those who speak. Its value is enhanced, if mere speculation can be replaced by actual results. There are now enough definite data to begin to talk a little more helpfully on many points. When physicians convene, they find profit in listening to the experience of each other in the treatment of certain diseases. Might the method not be used by us with as much profit? If there be one thing we lack more than another, it is an intelligent and an intelligible report of a systematic treatment of mental disorder and of the application of means and methods for mental growth. We have theory and are not wanting in fragmentary reports, but the rank and file in the profession are not finding them as helpful as they would like. There can be no better place to emphasize the value of such reports than in the meetings of this department.

In my intercourse with teachers, I am constantly reminded that they in general lack that acquaintance with recognized authorities on pedagogical subjects which is necessary to make them intelligent, consistent, and independent workers. A sarcastic or a humorous critic can easily drive many of them from the use of methods to which they have been wedded for years, and which have the sanction of the best teachers in the land. The grumbling of a few lazy or presumptuous pupils will often cause the desertion of methods which universal experience approves. The insane craving for something new serves too frequently as a pretext for a change

Teachers and pupils are apt at quoting authority for some historic or scientific statement, but are slow at quoting great teachers as authority on educational doctrine and methods. The reason is not far away. We have no great authorities to whom teachers appeal as do lawyers to Kent and Blackstone and Parsons. The curricula of our normal schools have not yet become so potent in the profession that they dictate what is orthodox pedagogy. It may be that the masters who are to give us the desired books are not yet among us. In any event, the fact remains and the confusion is lamentable. The teachers are asked to read Rousseau, but are told that he was an irrational dreamer; Pestalozzi is always recommended, but is described as an impracticable enthusiast; all should know Frœbel from A to Z, but his system must be adapted to meet the needs of our common schools; Rosenkranz is a great philosopher, but is difficult for the journeymen at least to digest; then there are Page, and Wickersham, and Payne, and Parker, and Harris; but though they throw a flood of light on the work of the teacher, few find them as helpful as they had hoped.

Of course it would be unwise to encourage teachers to follow any authority blindly, but it is just as true that most of them do follow some kind of authority; and is it not desirable that they should know a little more definitely what the more intelligent and more experienced part of the profession recognize as wisest and best? We meet and talk and resolve, but do we accomplish what we might for the humbler toilers in the two hundred and fifty thousand schoolhouses in our land?

I am not sanguine enough to think this can be accomplished in one year or in five, but it may be begun at once. The report presented at our last meeting and the one to be considered at this, will, I trust, be a kind of stepping-stone to something in the direction indicated. The normal schools in this country have reached that stage in their development at which compact organization with this end in view will not be long without fruit.

I am not unmindful of the reports which have been made to this and other departments from time to time, neither do I undervalue them, for all this work has been necessary as a preliminary to that proposed. Some individuals or some organization ought now to take the magnificent series of papers and reports which make up the fruitage of our national association, much of which has received its sanction, and put the material in such shape that every teacher can utilize it. It might take the form of a digest such as our legal and ministerial brethren possess. We are sweeping along at a wonderful rate in the development of new and improved ways of doing things. In every department of school work, the genius of the schoolmaster is finding expression in methods attractive, economic, and healthful, as well as in methods attractive, wasteful, and pernicious. No one is blind to the revolution which is taking place in the school-room.

New methods, new factors, new problems, meet us on every hand. How much of this material has come to stay? How much of it comes from our training schools and receives their approval? How largely are they in accord with each other? To what extent are they helping each other? Are they awake and leading, or do they follow passively along? The profession looks to the normal schools for the determination and organization of this work. Why should it be longer delayed? There is a consensus, and, as far as it exists, let it be expressed in the plainest terms possible. Let it be put in such a form that it will serve as a guide and a support to teachers and to all others who may wish to make our educational system do economic service. Let it have such sanction that it shall serve as an authority to which teachers can appeal in their contests with patrons, boards of control, and superintendents. Surely there are no other schools so admirably adapted to assist the profession in this way as the public normal schools; no others possessing the facilities to investigate, to test, to formulate true educational doctrine and practice.

With this single thought I must declare this department open for the presentation and discussion of papers assigned. That our meeting may prove as profitable as the indications now promise is my earnest hope.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THOMAS J. GRAY, PRESIDENT OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, ST. CLOUD, MINNESOTA.

The question upon which I am to report had been previously assigned to Principal Boyden, of the Bridgewater Normal School, of Massachusetts, but owing to poor health, he was obliged to give it up. President Taylor wrote me under date of April 16, asking if I could not undertake to discharge the duty of this committee. I felt reluctant to make the attempt, both from lack of time and from a consciousness of my inability to make such a report as the importance of the question demands.

My excuse for making the effort was my anxiety to have the subject brought before this body for discussion. I regard it as the most vital question before the normal schools of to-day.

The ground of the "what to teach" has been pretty thoroughly gone over; the "how to teach," in the wider reach of meaning included in the word *methodology* must come under review. If there be nothing here large enough and important enough to be wrought out into a system of thought and a code of laws and precepts, then must the theory of training schools for teachers be abandoned as have been many other vagaries of the human mind.

I prepared, as best I could, in the brief time I had, a series of thirty-two questions and issued them the first of May. These were sent to one hundred and seventy-five schools bearing the name "normal." Seventy-four of these circulars were returned in such shape as to make them of value. The cordiality with which the questions were answered, often accompanied with friendly notes of encouragement and explanation, has made me very sensible of the fraternal spirit among the toilers in one corner of the world's activities.

As I expected would be the case, some of the questions were not understood by all alike, owing to the different meanings attached to words. Noticeable among these were the terms "methods," as used in questions six, seven, and eight; "mental science," as used in nine and ten; "model school," as used in twelve; the terms "history of education," and "science of education," in twenty, and the entire twenty-second question. Some of the questions proved to be ambiguous, as was shown in the various answers returned; some proved to be worthless owing to lack of skill in formulating them; some, I believe, have been the means of gathering data of value in the solution of the problems of our work. I append to this report a list of the questions asked.

In undertaking to formulate the data, I have had little thought of any generalizations. They are dangerous to any but the most patient observer of facts, and should be withheld until presumption passes into firm conviction. What I gather, therefore, in the form of general statements must be taken rather as impressions than judgments. What these are, I will endeavor to make plain by referring you to the statistical data which have influenced me.

The very diverse notions regarding the sphere of normal-school instruction are shown in the replies to the questions asking for the course of study. Among these I find the following: The schools having a normal course, eight; advanced, three; collegiate, two; higher, one; preparatory, four; normal high school, one; surveying and engineering, two; university, one; regular, two; elementary, seventeen; advanced academic, seven; one course, seventeen; fine art, two; scientific, nineteen; classical, fourteen; general, two; commercial, six; elementary English, six; advanced English, six; teachers', seven; preparatory medical, one; engineering, three; music, two; art, one; business, two; supplementary course for high school graduates, one; supplementary course for college graduates, one; short course, one; full course, one; modern languages, two; training, one; special, one; academic, four; Latin scientific, one; ancient languages, one; literary, one; first course, two; second course, two; English, three; Latin, two; four years' course, one; two years' course, one; special for college graduates, one; intermediate, one; German-English, one; practice, one; didactic, one. Here we have forty-seven different terms used to describe the course, or courses of study. After reducing the number, by unifying all those which evidently differ in name merely, there will still remain a large number indicating the chaotic state of the curricula of studies regarded necessary in schools nominally existing for the training of teachers. If these schools are to command respect as technical schools, holding a place analogous to schools of medicine, it would appear that they must settle upon a code of instruction. Medical schools teach medicine; law schools teach law; theological schools, theology; what do, or rather, what don't normal schools teach?

Forty-eight schools report a special teacher in methods. Four, say that all of their teachers are teachers of methods; two report, "several," two report, "five," and one reports "eight."

This question, taken in connection with the one asking for the list of subjects included in the course in methods, would change the import of these figures in a few cases. In nearly all instances, the subjects are the common-school branches; but a few schools evidently cover all their professional work, including history and science of education, school economy and discipline, psychology, and even practice teaching by this term. Of the fifty-seven making answer to these two questions, it is evident that they regard methods as a subject demanding a place in the course of instruction. In respect to the length of time given to the subject, the answers are often obscure. In some cases, the time taken in other professional work is evidently included. In others, the reply is "all of the time," showing that the only teaching in methods is that by example, or example strengthened by incidental allusions to underlying principles.

One school reports "all the time that is needed." The time given varies all the way from two to twenty months. The average of the fifty-seven schools replying, appears to be very close to eight months, one recitation daily.

It is to be observed, however, that this time included in many cases so much of that given to mental science as to reduce the time allowed for methods to perhaps an average of six months. A like remark will apply to the replies to questions nine, ten, eleven, fifteen, and twenty. But a somewhat careful study of all of the answers returned, convinces me that it is possible to reach a fairly intelligent idea upon the points covered. Out of the seventy-four schools returning answers, fifty-nine included mental science in their courses, though in a large number of cases, without the use of any text-book. The time given varies from four weeks to "all the time" as reported from one school.

The average of fifty-eight schools is very close to four and one-half months, one lesson daily. In twenty-two schools the mental science in whole or in part, precedes the instruction in methods; in nineteen, it follows; and in thirty-one it accompanies. This makes a total of seventy-two replies to this question, showing that thirteen schools answered so as to be twice counted, saying that it "precedes and accompanies," "accompanies and follows," or, as in a few cases, "precedes and follows." It appears yet to be quite a common practice among the schools to undertake instruction in methods before psychology, and also to incorporate what was often in the replies termed, "a sufficient amount of mental science" into the method work, whatever that may mean. A few schools, not more than ten, seem to have reached the conclusion that a firm and broad basis must be laid in the science of mind upon which to rear the art of instruction. Some answered, "the mental science follows methods, but we believe this to be the wrong order and hope to change it." Two schools report no mental science in their course; the remainder make no reply.

Fifty-five schools have practice teaching done in a school of children, and nearly all of these children's schools, called variously, "training schools," "practice schools," or "model schools," are connected with the normal schools. Twenty-two have student-teachers "practice" upon classes formed from the teacher's own classmates. Of these, but two prefer this plan. The sentiment of the remaining twenty is expressed in the repeated answers: "I think it helpful to a limited degree as a preparation for the former, in testing a pupil-teacher's power in questioning and in logical arrangement, but think the former much the better way." The conviction among those having experience with the former plan is very strongly in its favor. One veteran says, "young men and young women cannot be nor play children." Another says, "The latter is only mimicry, it is like Hamlet, with Hamlet left out." Another says, "I have very little faith in playing school." Another exclaims, "The latter is a humbug, nonsense!"

Nearly every school using both plans expresses a decided preference for the former. The number of hours, not including time consumed in observation runs from eight lessons upward. The average for forty-eight schools is not far from one hundred seventy-five recitation hours of forty-five minutes each. A very few schools reach four hundred to five hundred hours, apparently of sixty minutes each.

There is evident upon the face of nearly every report a very high estimate of practice teaching, and a disposition to extend it as far as the limits of the course will allow. It would be pleasant to read to you the long array of illustrious names of those who, as if by common consent, declare: "We regard practice teaching absolutely indispensible in the training of teachers." "We look upon it as the most valuable part of such a course." "The central point and great essential of all professional training." It would seem that the question of the necessity of such work is settled beyond a doubt. The only conditions required by the answers are, that the pupil-teachers shall come to such work with the broadest culture attainable under the circumstances, and then be guided by competent supervision; conditions in which all must agree. No less than sixty-one schools place a very high value upon practice teaching, and what is more significant, fifty-seven out of the sixty-one are state institutions or city training schools. There is not among the fifty-seven, a single one which does not include it as an essential factor in training teachers. From the many clear statements made concerning this phase of normal instruction, it is evident in all of the strongest schools, that the absurd notion of practice teaching being a sort of "vivisection" has no place. It is seen that actual training by trained teachers, with the help of wise supervision may not be so bungling a process as that exhibited by the untrained teacher, whatever his rank, without the aid of competent oversight. The practice work is evidently placed in nearly all schools as far along in the course as circumstances will allow. It follows, as a rule, the work in methods and psychology and often that of other professional studies.

About half of the schools report "observation" as a part of the course, but, with the exception of a very few, it appears to be rather an incidental element. In those schools where this work is required, it usually forms a part of the system of "criticism." The pupil-teacher being at one time a critic, at another, a teacher. The plan seems to be forced upon schools in some instances from lack of a sufficient number of children to form classes. Many of the schools declare that the time spent in observation is as good as wasted. Other schools report that they have abandoned the idea, finding actual teaching the only means to accomplish the best results of practice work.

In those schools where a high value is placed upon observation as a means of training, there is general agreement in saying that "a pupil-teacher must be prepared to observe;" "he must know what to look for." "With these conditions it may often be made helpful as a preliminary, and be made useful in training to a critical estimate of the work of others." The average time taken in the observation for the schools reporting is close to three and one-half months, one period daily. Forty-four schools report "history of education" as a part of the course of study. The average time in months is three and a quarter. Forty-six include "school economy," with an average of three months. Thirty-four, "science or philosophy of education," with an average of three and one-third months. In a few cases, included in these results, it was impossible to separate the professional subjects, as they appeared to be "lumped together," as it were. But few, if any above half of the schools returning circulars, appear to give history and philosophy of education a distinct place in the programme. Forty schools say that a kindergarten is a desirable adjunct to a training school for teachers. Nine would not have any; only seven report a kindergarten. The schools reporting a definite plan for criticising the pupil-teacher's work, generally have one or more trained specialists, including the teacher of methods, whose business it is to go from room to room and note the work done. At a subsequent period, the critic meets the pupil-teacher and reviews the work in the light of pedagogical laws. This *critique* is in some cases, re-inforced by such observations as the pupil-teachers, who have "observed" the work of other pupil-teachers, may be able to offer. This element in the criticism work, judging from the report returned to me, is well systematized in the school of which our worthy president has charge. I was much pleased with the plan he has in operation. With respect to the remaining questions, a few general statements must suffice.

The twenty-second, which asks for the proper limits and place of the observation of facts for the purpose of general education, as distinguished from special education, was understood by a few only in harmony with the meaning in the mind of the author. The question is comprehensive ly answered by one of the normal-school presidents, in the words, "The limit is indicated by what is necessary to form correct concepts." Another says: "All special facts which are necessary as data from which to deduce general truths or principles in the interest of general education should be carefully observed, discriminated, and fixed in mind." The aim of the question was to get a clue to the views of normal-school teachers upon the processes of generalization. It seems that if one can know what the conscious purpose of a teacher is in appealing to the "thinking instrument" through the agency of the presentative and representative faculties, he may be able to fairly infer what the teacher's methods of instruction must be. This question taken with the twenty-fourth, indicates that the methods in use for "imparting" or "developing" the "thought alphabet" of a subject are used as may be termed inductive; that is, the multiplication of instances in experience. Whether we believe that there is nothing in the intellect which was not first in the sense, or not, it is evident that there is general concurrence in the opinion that the senses are the avenues along which the teacher must approach the citadel of the soul.

The place and use of the methods of questioning and recitation are widely similar. The answers generally agree in recommending the catechetical method for children, for advance work, and for testing pupils; the topical for older pupils, to cultivate freedom of expression and logical arrangement, and as supplementary to the former. The lecture method, without exception is relegated to advanced grades, and even there is usually followed by the condition that it shall be accompanied by searching catechism and topical reviews. The art of questioning is placed highest among all the arts of the teacher. There is almost no exception to this reply. It is termed the "fine art," "the most important factor," "the test of good teaching;" "it leads the fine arts," "a species of diagnosis," "essential to good teaching," "the primary instrument in directing the pupil's thinking," "of immense value, and few there be that find it;" "in this lies the art of teaching," "the main means, without it no teaching;" "if teaching be not telling, and it isn't, its value is apparent."

A few of the schools appear to require a formal sketch of the lesson by pupils in the practice and method classes, including full written questions and answers; but most schools require nothing beyond such written work as properly accompanies any recitation,—a general statement of subject matter and plan,—leaving the adaptation to the inspiration of the moment.

In almost every reply to the twenty-ninth question—"How do you impart specific skill and at the same time avoid making imitators?"—is found the statement—"We try to avoid making imitators by referring every special method or device to its underlying laws." One man pithily answers, "Very difficult, and with a certain class of minds almost impossible,—first, do not allow your words to be copied or reproduced; second, throw the student constantly upon his own resources and reserve your praise for things new; third, keep constantly before him that the methods you give are examples only, and may be the best only once in a hundred times, depending upon the teacher, the students, and the surroundings." The second point in this reply—"reserve your praise for things new"—deserves wide currency.

The last two questions calling for the characteristics and causes of failures of normal schools bring out a discouraging prospect, or rather let me say, an unpleasant retrospect. After fifty years of growth, it would appear that the normal school has not taken that rank in this country that its assumed importance would lead us to expect. Either there is, or there isn't a necessity for such schools. The answers generally agree that the normal school trains teachers, that their aim and outlook are quite different from other institutions; that they are technical schools in education, as schools may be found in medicine, law, and theology; but when we come to the replies upon the causes of failure there is a general wail because of a "lack of appreciation on the part of the public;" "a lack of intelligence among legislators;" "a lack of preparation in scholarship among the students who enter;" "a lack of sufficient time for professional work;" "because of too much academic work;" "too much preparatory work;" "too little skill on the part of normal teachers," &c., &c. The impression one gets in studying the replies to these questions is that the normal schools are not satisfied with the work they are trying to do. They are under restraint. What they would do, they do not, and that which they would not, that they do. I am not called upon to discuss the normal-school idea, nor do I intend to make the attempt; but I want to take time to remark that in my judgment we, the normal-school men, are more directly responsible for the estimate upon our work than any other persons. We say a normal-school training is as essential to good teaching as the work of a medical school to the physician, and then turn around and employ in our schools the fledgling from the college or the academy, one who has never spent an hour in the study of pedagogy, as a teacher of teachers. O, consistency, thou art a jewel! We proclaim the necessity of broad culture upon which to erect the special training of the teacher, and still continue to admit pupils to our courses who could not do the work of an average high school. If the proper function of a theological seminary is to train graduates of colleges, why should a pedagogical seminary do less?

When the friends of the theory, that teachers can be trained as well as ministers and doctors, demand such training on the part of those in high places, the absurdity of the untrained superintendent in charge of the trained subordinate will be done away with. If our courses of study are not adequate, then let us make them so. If professional training means anything, then give time sufficient to it to realize respectable results. In a word, the way in which to make good the assumption underlying our schools is to make it disgraceful for business colleges, academies, high schools, seminaries, colleges, and universities to masquerade under the name of "normal schools," to catch gudgeons and fill their treasuries, to the shame of a noble calling; and to place our schools upon the basis of a liberal course of study, to be supplemented by a liberal course in the science, history, and art of education.

In conclusion, I will express my obligations for the opportunity of continuing the inquiry begun a year ago, and will take the responsibility for the inadequacy and ambiguity of the questions, asking you only to receive my very imperfect summary as the beginning of what I hope, in this country, is such a pruning among the normal schools as shall completely reveal what they actually are doing, and point the way clearly to what they should do. We need fear no criticism half so much as we should fear that debasing of a lofty purpose to ignoble ends. Whatever impedes the development of true pedagogical seminaries should be ruthlessly severed from our schools, even though the scapel must be used.

Respectfully submitted,
THOMAS J. GRAY,
Committee.

[CIRCULAR.]

1. What is the corporate name of your Institution?
2. Its address?
3. The name of the President or Principal?
4. How many Courses of Study?
5. Name of each: Length of each: Enrollment in each:
6. Have you a special Teacher in Methods?
7. What length of time in months is given to instruction in Methods as a separate subject, apart from the indirect instruction given by the example of good teaching in other classes?
8. What subjects are included in the Course in Methods?
9. What length of time in months is given to Mental Science? What text-book is used?
10. Does the course in Mental Science precede, follow, or accompany the course in Methods?
11. Do your students do Practice Teaching? For how many hours?
12. Is the Practice Teaching done in a school of children? Have you a Model School?

13. Do your students practice with, or "give lessons" to classes from their own numbers?

14. What do you consider to be the relative values of the two plans of practice teaching named in questions 12 and 13?

15. What length of time in hours is spent in observation in the Model School?

16. What value do you place upon such observation as a factor in training teachers?

17. What plan have you for criticising the work of student-teachers?

18. What value do you place upon practice teaching?

19. In which year of your course do your students practice?

20. What length of time in months is given to each of the following subjects: History of Education—Text Book; School Economy—Text-Book; Science of Education—Text-Book; Moral Philosophy—Text-Book?

21. Do you regard a Kindergarten as desirable in connection with a Normal School? Have you one?

22. For the purposes of a general education, as distinguished from a special or technical education, what do you regard as the proper limits and place of the observation of particular facts?

23. Which do you consider to be the branches most difficult to teach?

24. What "ways and means" do you employ in imparting the concepts, the thought-alphabet, of a subject?

25. In the recitation, which produces better results, the topical method or catechetical method? When do you use either or both?

26. What value do you place upon the lecture-method in presenting matter to students?

27. What special stress do you lay upon questioning as an instrument in the teaching art?

28. Do your students prepare "sketches" of lessons in the Method class, containing formal questions and supposed answers?

29. How do you impart specific skill in Methods, and at the same time avoid making imitators of your students?

30. Will you indicate any particular methods you follow in Reading, Grammar, Chemistry?

31. What in your opinion differentiates a normal school from any other school of corresponding grade of pupils?

32. If there be any lack of success, any failure to reach the proper results in Normal School work, to what is such failure mainly due?

*DISCUSSION.**

The discussion was opened by J. A. Barnard, of Missouri, who had noticed with pleasure a growing sentiment in favor of normal schools in our country. He emphasized the value of the study of mental science; believed that it should precede rather than follow the study of methods, had found the idea prevailing among teachers that mental science is a subject too difficult for the ordinary teacher.

He believed that practice schools, while still imperfect, were very valuable; noticed some objections to them, but concluded that nothing could take their place.

On the question of observation, he found that its value depended upon its careful supervision.

He desired to see the kindergarten added to the normal school, and closed by urging those connected with normal schools to work for the elevation of the standard of instruction in them.

Dr. J. H. Hoose, of New York, desired to see the paper printed because it furnished a view of normal schools as they exist.

He called attention to the answers to question nine, referred to in the report, which showed that no text-book in mental science was used in a large number of the schools having reported that this subject was taught by them.

He considered that the immature mind handles any subject imperfectly, and is greatly helped in its mastery of a subject by the use of a text book. The terms of a science and their use can be best gained from the book.

W. A. Bell, of Indiana, asked if it were possible for a teacher to take the place of the text-book.

Mr. Hoose thought that he might.

In regard to practice schools, Dr. Hoose believed that many grades should be represented in them. A teacher who fails in instruction in the first grade may be a success in the tenth. Observation, to be valuable, must have been preceded by experience.

George P. Brown, of Illinois, thought the kind of instruction given in normal schools conditioned on the province of the normal school. He found a place for advanced and elementary courses of instruction.

The elementary normal school exists for the public schools, and must continue while they exist. It is to train those who are to carry on the great work of popular education. Teachers in this elementary school should come from those who have taken the advanced course, and these in turn should have had, as teachers, men and women of broad culture and university training.

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*Reported by the secretary.

S. S. Parr, of Indiana, did not entertain the views of the last speaker, did not think that the normal school needed to receive its inspiration from the university. He thought the first thing to determine was whether there is any thing peculiar in the nature of the normal school. If there is, it is needed, if not its work may be done in the academy, college, or university. He believed the normal school to be necessary from the fact that its point of view in regard to knowledge differs from that of other schools.

Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota, asked the author of the report whether the number of hours mentioned as having been given to practice were in his judgment hours of service in actual teaching, or whether they included criticism as well.

W. W. Gray had found the answers somewhat obscure, but assumed that where twenty hours had been said to be given to practice, twenty hours of teaching were meant.

Mr. Shepard had noticed in the report that of forty schools approving the kindergarten, only seven had organized one in connection with their other work. He asked the author of the report whether those who had not established a kindergarten considered it essential to normal-school work.

Mr. Gray replied that, on the whole, a large majority would not have it as a separate part of the work, but would incorporate it with their primary work.

C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire, approved of still further extending the inquiries of the committee, so as to include the question of what quality or qualities of a good teacher are most readily attained. He thought such an inquiry might throw light on the usefulness of practice schools.

G. S. Albee, of Wisconsin, on the question of supply of teachers for normal schools, agreed with Mr. Brown. Teachers of normal schools must have a liberal education. He thought that the questions sent out by Mr. Gray hardly gave knowledge enough of the state of practice schools, and hoped for a continuation of the investigation.

Prof. Norton, of Missouri, thought that the work begun last year at Topeka, for the unification of normal schools was progressing. There was no longer any doubt of the popularity of normal schools ; colleges and all sorts of institutions were appropriating the name. The question now was how to raise the standard of instruction in them.

Theo. B. Noss, of Pennsylvania, questioned Dr. Hoose's position in regard to the use of text-books in teaching mental science.

F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri, thought the good results of the study of mental science depended on something other than the use of a text-book. The best teaching which he had ever seen was oral teaching in a woman's normal school in Berlin, the poorest was in a school which shall be nameless, where a book was literally followed.

M. Leiler, of Indiana, wished to emphasize the need of a higher grade of scholarship in normal schools.

THE GERMAN SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

PROF. CHARLES DE GARMO, NORMAL, ILL.

The necessary brevity of this paper requires a strict adherence to main issues only, and reason would seem further to indicate that only those phases of German normal schools which have immediate bearing upon the problems of American normal schools should be discussed at this time. Yet, however brief this paper be, it would be idle to record a series of isolated and unexplained facts, for what is not properly understood may as well remain unsaid. It will, therefore, be the aim of this paper to show the cause for each important fact, and to show good reason for each proposed change in our American system, though it will often happen that the mere statement of a proposition must be at the same time the argument in its defence.

In Germany, schools have a social as well as an educational rank. They may in general be divided into lower, middle, and higher schools. The tuition, which is common to all, is graded, so that the poorer and lower social classes are driven into the lowest grade of schools. These are called *Volks*, or peoples' schools. In Prussia ninety-one per cent. of all children attend them; in Bavaria, ninety-six per cent. Their course of study is rounded up, and complete in itself. It leads into no higher school. Its duration is eight years,—from the age of six to that of fourteen. It is for this grade of schools that the German normal schools prepare, and have always prepared teachers.

The higher schools are taught by classically trained university men, even in the elementary grades.

German normal schools arose in the middle of the eighteenth century, and were established and maintained almost wholly from philanthropic motives. They educated pious young people for a business to which was attached neither competence nor worldly honor. Externally their growth was greatly stimulated by the rise of that great democratic wave which has swept through the world during the present century; furthermore, that fear of an uneducated proletariat, which arose with the French Revolution, and finally by that high patriotism which saw in the education of the German people the hope of freeing Germany from the domination of Napoleon. Internally they received a new birth through the educational revival which arose with Rousseau and Pestalozzi.

But at the close of the Napoleonic wars, Germany relapsed into the old police state, and soon suffered the internal contradiction of a free intellectual development of the people in its schools, and the cast-iron rigidity of a bureaucratic and despotic system of government. This contradiction culminated in the Revolution of 1848. A reaction followed, and the normal schools, which had become numerous, were accused of being the main disseminators of revolutionary ideas. In 1854 there followed the three famous Prussian Regulations, which eliminated from the normal schools the spirit of Pestalozzi and modern development, and reduced them to mediæval handmaids of the church, and a bureaucratic state. The example of Prussia was followed by other German powers. Authority took the place of self-activity in the school-room, and German education sank from its high estate. This was the condition of education in Germany until the great day of German unity, which came at the close of the Franco-Prussian war. The oppressive Regulations were repealed, the spirit of progress and free development of mind returned, and Germany resumed her former place as the leader of educational advancement. The number of normal schools increased until there were enough to supply all teachers needed for the peoples' schools. The number in Prussia in 1882 was 111, nine of which were for women, the rest for men, there being no co-education in German normal schools. Each school has a director, one head teacher, four ordinary teachers, and one assistant. It is attended by about one hundred students, about two-thirds of whom board in the school. The board is very cheap, not exceeding a dollar a week. The State pays the deficit, if there is one. I apprehend that the reason for this close connection with the school is to be found in the tendency of the normal-school students to imitate the excessive beer-drinking and carousing so common among the students of the university. The employment of women as teachers in Germany is yet regarded as an experiment in many parts of the country, and occurs only in graded girls' schools. Director Leutz, of Karlsruhe, said to me, "So far, they give good satisfaction, for they are still young and fresh, but who knows what they will become when they get old and cross?"

The fact that Germany can supply all its *Volks* schools with graduate teachers from the normal schools finds its explanation in these facts:

1. All students take a continuous course, and all graduate, indeed they must do so, before they can become teachers.

2. Nearly all graduates remain teachers, for a German rarely becomes that for which he was not specially educated.

3. Teaching is a profession in Germany, since none but trained persons are allowed permanently to teach in that country. The teacher is a civil officer, and holds his position with a life tenure. I find by computation that the average length of service of Prussian teachers for the last fifty years is 16.9 years, so that, aside from the increase in the number of

schools, but 5.9 per cent. of the whole number of teachers must be renewed yearly. I was assured by Dr. Rein, of Eisenach, in Sachsen-Weimer, and by Director Leutz, of Karlsruhe, in Baden, that not more than 5 per cent. of the number of teachers in those States are renewed yearly. This makes it possible with a reasonable number of normal schools to supply trained teachers for all schools. Every year, however, in Illinois, over 20 per cent. of all teachers are beginners. At this rate, to supply our Illinois schools with trained teachers, it would take one hundred and forty-two normal schools, each having one hundred students, a three years' course of study, and graduating thirty-three students annually. We have, in reality, two normal schools, graduating from twenty-five to forty students each year.

German normal schools are administered by the state central educational minister, a provincial school commission, and the director.

The same difficulties which have beset us, concerning the proper preparation of candidates for the normal schools, exist in Germany. Most of their candidates come naturally from the *Volks*, or peoples' school, but, as we have seen, the course of study is strictly elementary, and closes when the student is at the age of fourteen. The common rule is to require three years of preparation before entering the normal. This preparation is obtained in one of three ways:

1. Privately. This happens in villages where only the *Volks* school is found.
2. In the advanced grades of middle or higher schools.
3. In special preparatory schools. Of this kind, Prussia has thirty, while each normal school of Saxony has its preparatory school. The pupils are here taken at fourteen, direct from the *Volks* school, and graduated six years later. The course of study in the preparatory schools is purely academic, and consists of: 1, Religion; 2, German (reading, grammar, etc.); 3, Mathematics (arithmetic, algebra, and geometry); 4, History; 5, Geography; 6, Natural Science; 7, Writing; 8, Drawing; 9, Singing; 10, Violin; 11, Piano; 12, Harmony; 13, Gymnastics.

That every normal school must have a model and training school has long since been established by law in Germany, and is no longer a question of debate. As the late Director Kehr, of the Halberstadt normal school, said, "A normal school without a training school would be like a swimming school without water." The only feature to which I wish to call your attention, is the fact that in Prussia each training school has a country or district school department, that is, a model of a school taught by one teacher, so that the students have a complete picture of a village ungraded school. I do not dwell upon the subject of the training school, for I believe that this country has now become pretty thoroughly converted to the idea that the training school is a necessary part of any thoroughly equipped normal school. Some of you will remember, however, in the discussion of my paper on "Model Schools," at Saratoga, in 1883, that one of your members indulged in a prophecy concerning a gentleman who was advocating the need of training schools in New England normal schools, to the effect that if the gentleman lived five years longer he would not know so much about the subject as he did then. Only four of the years set by the prophecy have passed, but if that gentlemen has even begun to know less on this topic than he did then, he can tell us to-day, for, by a coincidence, he is to discuss this paper also. I may remark in passing, that the training work takes place during the second and third years, and consists of observation, 60 hours ; model lessons by the normal teachers, 120 hours ; trial lessons by the pupils, 80 hours ; special preparation for teaching in the training school, 40 hours ; teaching in the training school, about 200 hours ; critical discussion of class exercises conducted by the pupils, 40 hours.

We come now to what has long been a serious problem in American normal schools, viz.: the arrangement of the curriculum, and the relation of academic to professional work. There has been a growing feeling in some parts of this country that the normal school has no business with academic training, but should confine itself strictly to professional work. I judge from last year's report to this body, that some, wishing to conform to modern sentiment but not seeing how to do so in reality, have apparently rechristened some of their departments, so that what used to be known as academic work has now become professional work of the strictest kind. This may look well on paper, but it only retards a true solution of the difficulty. Below, I have written out in full the curriculum of the Prussian normal schools as fixed by the *Allgemeine Bestimmungen*, of 1872, that is, the general directions of the central school authority. It may in general be remarked that it consists of the same subjects pursued in the preparatory course, together with the theoretical and practical professional work proper. From this we may infer what is the fact, that it is the concurrent testimony of school men in Germany, that no amount of theory about teaching the various branches can equal a thorough review and study of them in their relation to the teacher and the children to be taught. Academic instruction is, then, in their view, a necessary branch of normal-school instruction, and not something which, under changed conditions of preparation, might be dismissed with profit. This does not mean, however, that academic instruction in a normal school should not differ essentially from academic instruction in a high school. As I apprehend the matter, it is in this particular that we have the most room for improvement. I will explain, later, the way in which I think this improvement can be made.

The following is the curriculum of a Prussian normal school, which is a fair representative of what is done throughout Germany. The figures in the right-hand column show what per cent. of the whole work that of the respective groups is:—

	Hours per week each year.			Perct. of whole
	1st.	2d.	3d.	
I. PEDAGOGICS.				
1. History of Education.	2			
2. Pedagogics (Psychology and Logic.)		2		5.6
3. Methods.			2	
4. Teachers' meetings (For pupil-teachers.)			1	
5. Model lessons by teachers.		1	2	
6. Trial lessons by the pupils.		1	1	12.8
7. Preparation for teaching in training school.			1	
8. Teaching in training school.			4.6	
9. Observation. (Con.)			1-2	
II. RELIGION.				
1. Biblical History.	3	2		7.7
2. Catechism.		2		
3. Hymns.	1			
4. Exegesis and Church History.			2	
III. GERMAN.				
1. Grammar.	1	1	1	
2. Essay and Oration.	1	1		
3. Cursory reading.	1	1		11.4
4. Careful Reading (Detailed study of selections, declamations, and systematic study of classical works.)	2	2		
5. History of Literature.			1	
IV. GENERAL HISTORY.	2	2	2	5.6
V. MATHEMATICS.				10.5
1. Arithmetic and Algebra.	3	3	1	
2. Geometry.	2	2		
VI. NATURAL SCIENCE.				
1. Natural History.	2	2	2	9.5
2. Physics.	2			
3. Chemistry.		2		
VII. GEOGRAPHY.	2	2	1	4.7
VIII. DRAWING.	2	2	1	4.7
IX. WRITING.	2	1		2.7
X. GYMNASTICS.	2	2	2	5.6
XI. MUSIC.				
1. Piano.	1	1		
2. Organ.	1	1	1	
3. Harmony.	1	1	1	
4. Violin.	1	1	1	19.2
5. Elementary Singing.	1			
6. Figurative Descant and Choral Singing.	2	2	2	
7. History of Music.			1	
8. Mixed Choir Singing.			1	
Total required.	37	37	32.1	100
XII. FRENCH (Optional.)	3	3	2	

It can be seen from the foregoing table that no subject is pursued for less than one year, while many subjects, such as history, geography, drawing, gymnastics, and certain branches of music are studied throughout the entire three years. Many other subjects are studied continuously for two years. This arrangement is made possible by the fact that attendance by the students is continuous throughout the entire course, whereas our broken attendance compels us to make the school term the unit of time for a study. It is curious to notice that the number of hours per week assigned to any given subject does not exceed two, except for arithmetic, and algebra, biblical history, and teaching in the training school.

Such, in brief, is the German normal-school system. But what of it? What does it mean for us? Can we attain to any such results? What is the American normal school? What are the conditions by which its development must be determined?

Whatever the average American normal school may now be, in its very recent past it might have been fitly defined as a high school with a training attachment, having the limitations of a low-grade high school, and the ambition of a high-grade college.

In order that the changes which I have to suggest may be seen to have some basis in reason, I wish to make certain propositions which, since I shall not have time to demonstrate them, may be considered as self-evident truths, until they are shown to be erroneous.

1. That, since the great majority of students who enter a normal school leave at or before the end of the first year, the curriculum for that year ought to be a fair, though elementary representation of a complete professional education. In the Illinois normal school 72 per cent. of our students do not enter upon the second year's work. If the principle stated is a sound one, no great educational department ought to be entirely neglected in the first year's course; yet in our curriculum, psychology follows theory and art of education, and is found first in the second year. Again, natural science is a great and growing department of education, yet we meet its first manifestations in our course of study in the second term of the second year. I propose to put physiology, at least, into the first year. A little further on, I shall propose changes in the theoretical professional work.

2. That the education given in the great mass of normal schools must, in the nature of things, remain elementary in character. College and university trained teachers do not compete for positions in the district and village schools, even in old countries where the struggle for existence is sharpest, much less are they likely to do so in this country. Schools paying from $300 to $500 only, must be filled by persons having only secondary education. Since, then, the normal school cannot compete with the college in higher education, it is idle to load the curriculum

with so many college studies, but is wiser to spend more time on fewer subjects. For example, we, at Normal, teach six sciences, one of which gets fifteen weeks, while each of the others is studied for twelve weeks only. Further, we devote six weeks to the history of education, and another six weeks to Rosenkranz's "Philosophy of Education," the best, yet the most difficult of works on education in the English language. It needs no argument to show the folly of making so many beginnings which lead to so little. I make the very modest proposal in regard to science, that astronomy be dropped, and that the two great representative sciences, physics and zoology receive at least two terms each.

3. That any serious attempt greatly to raise the standard of admission will end in driving most of the male students out of the normal school. Witness the advanced State normal school at Milwaukee, which enrolls but one man. Any other normal school which demands the completion of a high-school course as a condition of entrance, will, I imagine, contain few male students. From this it follows that, if the normal school is made purely professional, it is likely to become purely female.

4. That every normal school in America should teach gymnastics two hours a week throughout its entire course. It is exceedingly rare to see a stoop-shouldered or consumptive looking man in Germany. Sitting one day in the garden of the Luxembourg, in Paris, I began to count the number of round-shouldered people who passed. All classes were represented. Of those I counted, thirty-six were straight, and sixty-three were more or less round-shouldered, many of them seriously so. Gymnastics is thoroughly universal in all German schools, but is not, or at least has not been so, in France.

5. That our normal schools should make music a much more serious business. There is not time to discuss this point.

6. That, since the normal school is elementary in its scope, and since the American teacher, unlike the German, has no limits set to what he may become, the thing of most lasting benefit which the normal school can do for him and the State, is to quicken him to the widest professional growth. I have little doubt that some of the early normal schools, with their one-year courses, did far more towards implanting a growing inspiration in their pupils, than we do with our three years of grind. To this end I would have a more rational and far-reaching professional course of study. I propose, therefore, the following:—First year: First term, Observation; Second term, Elementary Psychology; Third term, Elementary Theory and Practice of Education. Second year: First term, Logic and advanced Psychology; Second term, History of Education; Third term, Philosophy of Education (Rosenkranz). Third year: Entire year, two to three hours per week, Illustrative Teaching, united with the principles of Methodology, a subject which, so far as I am aware, has received little or no attention in American normal schools.

7. That it is time for the normal school in America to pass that stage of its development in which it is a high school with a training attachment; and that, therefore, aside from the strictly professional work, a more pedagogical treatment of the academic branches is needful. To this end I propose the following:—

a. That the teacher in charge of any given branch should give instruction in that subject throughout its entire scope as an organic whole, and not merely in its high-school phases.

b. That he should consider his subject in its rise and development as a factor in education.

c. That he should present a historical view of his subject in regard to methods, as the best safeguard against a mechanical and slavish copying of educational devices.

d. That he should consider the educational function and value of his subject.

e. That he should consider his subject in its coordinate relation to the other subjects of the curriculum.

8. That, finally, since a large part of normal-school work is to fit teachers for the district and country schools, it is advisable to have a type of this kind of school in the training department.

Not to break too greatly with our past at Normal, and yet substantially to approximate to the ideals herein set forth, I propose the following curriculum for that and similar normal schools :—

FIRST YEAR.

1.	Observation in Model School.	1st Term.
2.	Elementary Psychology.	2d Term.
3.	Elementary Theory and Practice of Education.	3d Term.
4.	Reading and Dictionary work.	1st and 2d Terms.
5.	Spelling.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.
6.	Arithmetic.	1st and 2d Terms.
7.	Geography, Physical.	1st Term.
8.	Geography, applied.	2d Term.
9.	Grammar and Language.	2d and 3d Terms.
10.	History.	3d Term.
11.	Physiology.	3d Term.
12.	Gymnastics.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.

SECOND YEAR.

1.	Logic and advanced Psychology.	1st Term.
2.	History of Education.	2d Term.

3. Philosophy of Education (Rosenkranz).	3d Term.
4. Rhetoric and Criticism.	1st and 3d Terms.
5. Algebra.	1st and 2d Terms.
6. Geometry.	2d and 3d Terms.
7. Drawing.	1st Term.
8. History.	1st and 2d Terms.
9. Botany.	3d Term.
10. Teaching in Model School.	Two terms.
11. Music, 2 hours a week.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.
12. Gymnastics, 2 hours a week.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.

THIRD YEAR.

1. Civics, etc.	2d Term.
2. Illus. Teaching and Methodology, 3 hours a week.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.
3. History of English Literature.	3d Term.
4. Physics.	1st and 2d Term.
5. Book-keeping.	1-2 3d Term.
6. Drawing (perspective).	3d Term.
7. Chemistry.	1st Term.
8. Zoology.	2d and 3d Terms.
9. Teaching in Model School.	Two terms.
10. Music, 2 hours a week.	1st, 2d and 3d Terms.
11. Gymnastics, 2 hours a week.	1st, 2d and 2d Terms.

Remark 1. Physical Geography is placed first because it is the basis of geography so far as the latter is a rational study. A second term would fairly illustrate the application of the principles of the first. Even though the entire three years were spent upon geography, county superintendents would still be able to ask unanswerable questions upon it.

Remark 2. Should the second year's work be deemed too heavy, the second term in geometry can, perhaps, be best spared.

Remark 3. Only the suggestions regarding music and gymnastics would require any change in the ordinary teaching force.

DISCUSSION.[*]

F. W. Parker, of Illinois, said he expected American normal schools to be better than those of Germany, when they were as old. German normal schools date from 1750. Ours are scarcely fifty years old. When we become more critical we shall do better work. The philosophical element in their system gives it great strength, English-speaking people are lacking in the philosophical view of education. In America, we have had three stages of growth in educational matters: first, the chaotic; second, the stage in which great attention was given to grading, giving a good body; the third we are now entering upon, which will result in putting a soul into the body. The inside history of education in America is the history of normal schools. He had nothing to criticise in the normal schools. They had done a grand work. But what next? This meeting shows great interest in the subject. We shall not live without the study of the philosophy of education. America needs one purely professional school which shall prepare teachers of methods for normal schools. It needs a national normal school.

The discussion was still further continued by M. E. Nicholson, of Indiana, who called attention to certain conditions of American life and civilization, which must make the problem of American normal schools an individual one.

Dr. J. H. Hoose, of New York. In Germany, the young man remains in the normal school. Why does he not here?

Professor De Garmo. The county superintendent will give him a license to teach, without special training.

Dr. Hoose. Would it be expedient for the county superintendent to raise the standard in order to help normal schools?

Professor De Garmo. No. Illinois has but two normal schools, and could not furnish enough teachers. Besides, if the county superintendent raised the standard he would not be re-elected.

W. R. Garrett, of Tennessee, asked if a resolution would be in order, recommending the establishment of a national normal school.

The president ruled that such a resolution would come properly under general business.

W. A. Bell, of Indiana, called attention to the place assigned to observation by the author of the paper, in his proposed curriculum for normal schools, and questioned the value of observation without the standards furnished by the study of theory.

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[*] Reported by the secretary.

Mr. Allyn, of Illinois, gave the results of his own experience in the matter of training pupils to observe. He thought observation should begin early.

Mr. Maples, of Milwaukee, thought we might learn from the Germans to be thorough. He should not lessen in any degree the desire for a higher grade of professional work. He regretted the lack of uniformity in regard to professional requirement in various schools.

Mr. Parker. A common course of study would be a misfortune. Freedom gives power. Teaching is a business now, when it becomes an art it will attract great minds.

CONDITIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

G. S. ALBEE, PH.D., PRES. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, OSHKOSH, WIS.

Institutions are embodied ideals. For what ideals do Normal Schools stand?

The history of education is but a recapitulation of the loftiest ideals of a race or an age; for what is systematic education but the strenuous struggle of each generation to transmit to immediate posterity all the vantage of its highest conceptions of manhood, and its clearest views of the determinate lines on which human progress must be made?

The lengthening record of what man has accomplished will ever be the great reservoir of demonstrated and potential truths. He who views any of them as finalities, to be estimated for what they were rather than as promises of a better becoming, must read the experiences of life to little profit.

Now, this striving to guide the rising generation along lines of least resistance was no less positive, earnest, and definite in the patriarchal tents of Israel than to-day.

The only sense in which normal schools may be considered as institutions of recent origin, is in the peculiar phase of training necessitated by remarkable development of complex conditions in civilization. The child cradled in the remotest valley of a country-side, must be trained to enter the crowded arena of a metropolis armed for the conflict of skilled wits, instead of peacefully occupying his rural inheritance; or, if he abide upon the ancestral acres, the competitions of the world assail with scarcely abated force.

Therefore, the education of to-day is no longer the genial inculcation of traditional lore in a mind already more than half taught by the unconscious tuition of environment, physical and spiritual. The larger ratio of the unfamiliar calls for a greater conscious struggle for assimilation and selection of essentials.

How early, painfully early, in the life of the child does this demand for mental athleticism seize upon the rising generation!

Demand precedes supply, and the call for clear-cut presentation of thought adapted to stages of mental growth, for special training in symmetrical development, is upon us. But who is fitted for the work? We are of the past and the old, while the new and the future make the demand. Transformation of our mental and moral arsenals has been manfully done, and many a smooth-bore arm of the service has undergone the painful process of rifle-grooving in the interests of higher demands.

Regarding the aspect of this demand, we, in this latter half of a century, unparalleled for man's conquests over physical environment; in America, where the results of these conquests have marked their highest value; here in the heart of this Western World, pulsating with currents of material traffic flowing round the earth, we must express the conviction that all this is of the old and must relatively decrease, and that mental power, moral force, and efficiency spiritual, shall increase.

In evolution the lower intelligences are utterly dominated by environment, largely inanimate. Even yet man's proudest boast of superiority has scarcely risen above rejoicing that he can cope with inanimate forces upon equal terms.

But these conquests over the outer nature have brought on this clash of intellect with an accelerated force so complex in its manifestation, that a new element of unmeasured proportions appears to have been created.

Hereafter, the struggle with matter will become insignificant when compared with the giant struggle of mind with the world of thought, calculations and competing interests.

This is the problem education is called to meet, and educators to formulate.

Amid the more or less hasty adjustments to meet the unprecedented demands of a civilization, seething with speculations of the urgent and the possible in education, normal schools came into being; ill-guided by vague ideals; ill-equipped with instructors trained under earlier auspices; ill-supported by either law or popular customs.

Enthusiasm is a warm soil and growths are quickly made; but unless there be a strong substratum of essential truth and abiding faith these must perish and the flower wither without seed.

There was a sound reason for the organization of normal schools; no less sound because unperceived by the great body of cultivated men whose enlightened support would have helped to avoid some errors. The very necessity pressing for immediate and manifest results in professional training did much to distort the early ideals and make manifest the weakness of a half-fledged cause.

The past had contributed its dreams of the possible, and its empirical customs. We took these customs, tinted them with the dreams and called them "methods." And such, indeed, they were; but this effort to put new wine into old skins wrought havoc, nevertheless, with budding faiths. A host of well-wishers shook dubious heads above anxious hearts, feeling that the unpretentious, blundering old had been safer, less misleading than the broken reed of a new pretense.

The strenuous endeavor to reap rich harvest from scanty sowings entailed two serious obstacles upon later efforts; whether it shall remain a perpetual inheritance, rests largely with men in charge of normal schools.

First: Immaturity and mediocrity flock to the normal school to be made up or made over, in the briefest time.

Second: The limitation in culture and methods which this state of affairs imposed upon the earlier school, has tended strongly to fix this as the permanent ideal governing normal schools and determining their province.

It is admitted by all that it is the function of a normal school to train teachers for their work; but the province is, with almost equal unanimity, defined as lying within narrow limits of professional training. Most aspects of this question,—for I am glad to say this point is most earnestly and ably questioned,—cannot be properly discussed under the caption assigned to this paper; yet, when the field of the normal school is not only assumed to be limited to the art of teaching and school economy, but it is also claimed that these shall be presented from the prescriptive and the empirical side rather than based upon presentation and investigation of mental laws, the statements here made have place.

The field of valuable rules in teaching is not broad, and that attitude of mind, which readily receives rules as ultimate guide and reason for procedure, is wretchedly narrow and unfruitful. The field of application in practical teaching is as endlessly varied as life itself, while rules are but sorry generalizations. The best of directions are but a half-truth, while the impulse of the most rule-loving soul is to attempt some sort of accounting however feeble, for the other half, when occasion presses. But lacking any chart to its source, his mental geography almost inevitably loses its bearings and teaches north for east.

MENTAL DISCIPLINE AND PSYCHOLOGY.

There is too much confusion in many able minds between the results of mental discipline and training in psychology. The oft-repeated dictum of teachers college-bred—that, after all, a well educated man is as well trained for teaching as any one, rests wholly upon this confusion; for I certainly run little risk of contradiction when I say, that the course of so-called mental philosophy usually imbibed by a college undergraduate plays little part in the above estimate of value in the college course.

This term "discipline" is by no means simple, but in the highest degree complex in its possible significance. A "trained body" may range through a multitude of meanings from a coal heaver to a ballet-dancer or a Rubenstein. Is the mind less complex or facile than the body? Every antagonistic clash of one soul with another, every blundering attempt of one strong mind to exchange work with one skilled in another line of thought, proves the contrary. Discipline comes from definite exercise of any power. When we go further than this in definition divergence begins, and claims of identity or equivalance must be carefully weighed before acceptance.

Nothing is more certain than that the earliest field of thought evolved from the unknown and the vague, lies close on either side of sense. The remote in space and the profound in thought bear no part. "Whatsoever thy hands find to do, do it," is the germ of all breadth and all depth in thinking. So there is to be no quarrel with the empirical "doing" phase or period in the evolution of normal schools or of normal students. But, unless our higher ideals are made very definite and kept ever alert, there is a very real danger in the work done directly for the art of teaching. The very grooves of our art furnish convenient tracks upon which a teacher, devoid of original power, can run a long career under the impetus of custom, right or wrong.

Four-fifths of humanity are essentially imitative, and this instinct of conformity saves the individual, but does not lift the race to a higher plane. 'Tis this tendency of normal schools to give the stamp of authority, a kind of patent of distinction, to a rule of routine or the vagary of a misinterpreted truth, that has proved most disastrous to the repute and ideals of the profession.

OBSTACLES TO PROGRESS.

The obstacles to progressive growth from the narrow past of normal schools to a broader view and work in the future have been named as but two. But these are myriad in special operation. It is no solution of a man's problem to be told that there is but one kind of mosquito, when a legion beset him. Our ten millions of children must be schooled, and their three hundred thousand teachers trained. Every good teacher must be a skilled psychologist, though few can attain the stature of profound philosophy. We waive all discussion of the over-vexed question whether. academic instruction may be best given or withheld in normal schools, for the simple reason that all are agreed that such knowledge must be gained somewhere at some time. It is also quite usually admitted that the technical knowledge is best gained when the mind is most keenly interested in the aspects and relations which the special topics of a branch sustain to each other, and not diverted by extended question in other fields.

It needs no argument to prove that the training for scholarship should be had in close accordance with laws governing thought; this is consciously exercised by teachers, though unconsciously by learners. If this kind of teaching can best be obtained in normal schools, well, till trained teachers in other schools become the rule and not the exception. But I presume that the most serious work in training for scholarship, or any definite thinking which meets us just now, is the correction of habits of false inference from facts known, the establishing of a just balance of judgment in estimating importance of related topics, and the creating of a spirit and an attitude of investigation toward any subject under consideration.

Until a reasonable foundation in mental ability and right habit is had, it were vain to talk of psychology as an important factor in the work of normal instruction. I now speak of psychology as usually treated, hoping to make my position clear before closing.

Under adverse conditions, it would seem that the place of psychology in the curricula of schools, collegiate and normal, has been one of theoretic fitness and a promise of things hoped for, rather than of the indwelling influence which it ought to exert.

INHERENT DIFFICULTIES.

Thus far we have touched a few of the unfavorable conditions external and antecedent to the school work; but a few within deserve brief mention.

First, the habits of thought engendered while gaining the indispensable acquisitions of knowledge are not favorable to introspection. The mind has done well to observe and infer, without turning aside to analyze the modes and causes of its activities.

Second, normal schools tend inevitably to unusual formality in methods. The art of teaching is to be inculcated by precept and example; its rules become prominent at the threshold of the student's career and chime harmoniously with every habit and ideal of his immature nature. For, in the middle stage of mental growth, when we have risen above the animal drift with environment, yet have not gained strength for a sustained quest of the spirit for ultimate truth, we crave certainties and the definite before all else. The prescriptions and conclusions constituting the scheme of our art satisfy this craving.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT TEACHING.

This leads to a fundamental error in teaching. The obvious and the immediate come to exert undue influence, and the schoolmaster is prone to exalt direct teaching and instruction above its merits, when compared with the excitation and infiltration of thought, through its manifold less prominent relations.

Each has its danger; the sub-conscious tuition lacking something of clear-cut individuality, the conscious often failing to find sure connections or to secure assimilation with the natural relations of topics.

So long as an acquisition lies in consciousness, making sensible draft on memory for its retention, assimilation has made no profitable progress, and is a source of weakness rather than of strength.

Educational literature swarms with panaceas and poultices for every professional disorder. These heterogeneous topics of the school-room and the journals press upon the undisciplined teacher, with scarcely a hope of rational solution.

It should be the province of psychology to simplify and correct this youthful, eager search for knowledge among the broken fragments of truth.

FAVORABLE CONDITIONS.

Under these unfavorable conditions of habit and general influences the work of psychology is to be done. But one favoring condition must not be overlooked. There is a sentiment widespread among the students and faculty of a normal school such as does not usually obtain in college, that the study of psychology lies at the foundation of any substantial building for high excellence in the profession of teaching; that it is this body of principles more than all else, which makes teaching a profession and not a mere trade. This sentiment is usually somewhat superficial, sometimes scarcely more than conventional; but it is cast on the right side, and though far too feeble to make much headway against the strong current of adverse habit, it is still a great point gained. It is a demand in consciousness urging that the field be occupied.

POPULAR VIEW AND SPECIAL TREATMENT.

So firmly has the tendency to accept second-hand data taken possession of the schools that both teachers and pupils seek first, and often last, the book even in the branches where the data lie just at hand.

In most branches this attitude may well be deemed unwise; but in those whose subject-matter is largely of personal experience, this tendency to look abroad for facts blinds the learner to most that is valuable. Notably is this tendency, we think, at the bottom of most of our difficulty in teaching the English language, the child's vernacular, companion of all his experiences, yet introduced to him as formally as if a stranger like history.

So in a more profound sense does the study of psychology call for special treatment. The current view of the work to be done is still largely as a study of some one's thoughts concerning mental phenomena and little more. As outlining the attitude we would assume and avoid, these three statements may aid:

First. Psychology must not be pursued simply as one branch among the multitude of other subjects needed in rounding out scholarship, to lie as a mere acquirement.

Second. Do not permit the student to treat it as a field for sharpening his wits in critical balancing of probabilities between schools of philosophy. This exercise of critical powers is good, but there may be but very little of psychological power gained. The personal reference in deciding a point may be of the slightest, never rising to a definite experience.

Third. Let psychology be taught as the general science underlying all aspects of school work, threading through every plan and purpose of one mind set to influence another, in the investigation of any subject.

We are dealing with practical verities and must not allow any glamor of custom to turn us from facing disagreeable truths. Unfortunately, it has been the custom of the higher schools to teach a multitude of branches with little determinate purpose, as good things to have knowledge about, but with no clear expectation of manifest results.

Thus a series of accomplishments, adorning lives moving with social currents, rather than determining lives destined to change these currents, have come to be classed with a liberal education. The truth is, a branch pursued in such a manner liberates no soul and is falsely classed. Mental science has been no exception to this dry-rot in general education, as many of us can testify from our student experience.

If such as this is to be the work in normal schools, cut it out of the course, as a cumberer of ground that might bear much fruit in some other field worthily tilled. But we all agree that this shallow pretense need never be tolerated.

The phase objected to in the second point may occur in very honest and very able hands. There is such a keen play of intellect that neither eacher nor class care to inquire just what is gained for introspective habit or power.

We may set out with broad views and strong convictions regarding the value of the study as an instrument of culture or discipline, and yet, from inadequate time, improper methods, or domination of antecedent habits, leave for result nothing better than before stated,—a critical estimate of a great man's views.

This has not turned the furrow in a student's mind which the instrument was meant for. It has plowed in the field of criticism under a new name.

Psychology is barren so long as it rests in the mind as a mere body of doctrine unvitalized by clear personal experience. Definiteness must come into one's realization of a concept before the study of this branch has borne tangible fruit; and few even realize how much of a test this is.

SUGGESTION OF SPECIAL PHASES.

When and where in the normal course should this branch be pursued? Our students come to us crude, and successful introspection is the prerogative of mature and disciplined minds. Can any effective work be done before the senior year? Our judgment is that if it is not attempted till then, it will never be done effectively. We must learn to do by beginning. Time and right mental attitude are essential to any worthy success; and failure in this branch leaves little of value in science of education or art of teaching.

Now, granting crude minds at the outset in a normal course, but a clear conception of the problem of our profession in the leading minds of the faculty, What methods should be employed?

The soil is first to be prepared for the later sowing; and, as the figure suggests, this preparation may make the more severe demand upon the wisdom and skill of instructors.

Through co-operation of certain most skilled in the corps of instructors, mark out certain aspects of introspection which are to be pursued definitely and regularly in connection with specified lines of thought. Thus, from the beginning of his course, let the student be exercised upon points of psychological import adapted to his ability, till the early disregard is transformed into an habitual regard for his ways of thinking.

In this preparation we assume but one thing; the possession of a "common sense." By this is meant the possession of that great body of undefined yet constantly repeated observation and inference, rectified by balance of numberless counteracting errors, till substantial agreement as to certainty has become common property of a community more or less extended.. From this great fund of unconscious experience, almost unlimited drafts can be made and evolved in consciousness through a wide range of psychological exercise. Beware that this do not degenerate into a desultory drift of odds and ends of questioning and thinking.

Let the student know that all these isolated or special questions belong to one great purpose, namely, the training to a readiness and increasing strength in taking up a line of self-examination in methods of thought.

There is no mind entering upon a course of normal instruction too feeble to do profitable work upon the elementary phases of mental action. Their apparent weakness is the manifestation of antagonizing habits of thought and disuse of the introspective power.

The call to state what was thought first, second, third, etc., in gathering his resources to answer questions upon any topic, is surely not beyond a student's ability; yet it contains the germ of all the series in psychological work.

The distinction between fact and inference in an extended statement is not a remarkable feat; yet classes high in colleges and universities have displayed lamentable lapses in this respect when tested, from sheer lack of right exercise.

What is the mental attitude towards facts in the act of classifying? of analyzing? in generalization? may be asked in familiar phrase, and wrestled with most profitably in early stages of the course; bristling as it is with concrete occasions.

But it is not the purpose here to multiply examples,—school management, class-observation, art of teaching unless it be the baldest of dogmatism, are crowded with the more complex questions of feeling, and motive, and mental habit of the child. None of these can be wholly ignored even by the most rule-ridden teacher. Why then not plant each discussion squarely in the province of psychology, according to its need and measure, and treat it with the student faced toward the working of mind and motive, as seen in himself and as inferred from others?

With these habits sedulously cultivated not only through a series of years, but coursing through the lines of daily practical duties, a ground and a grain must be laid which can be trusted for service and growth long after the accomplishments of the class room have become of the past. Standards will have been gained and attitudes of thinking engendered, that give a profound meaning to the later discussions in philosophy and science of education.

However wisely this preparation of mind may have been made, do not think of it as anything but a preparation. It must never be confounded with the systematic study of psychology as a body of doctrine.

No matter how keenly the student may have thought out his special cases, they will never assume their true relation as but parts of a great whole, till the science as a system of thought has been mastered and personal equations corrected.

In this advanced stage, I would not dare to stand between the student and the master minds of the sciences.

He is prepared and should be led to hold intercourse with a strong, clear thinker; to wield the text as an instrument for arousing thought, not as an oracle propounding unquestionable truths.

The teacher will be guide, counselor, and fellow-investigator; but never the mouth-piece of either party.

May we not expect that students thus trained will enter into the joy of the wider field opened to them by the great works in psychology, as intelligent co-operators and investigators, intensely appreciative of the broader foundations laid for this building, rather than as dazed learners of vague, inconsequential tasks; ready, as few are, to build a living system, vitalized and vitalizing at every point and manifestation?

Forms of the past have served us. We could not become differentiated in a day or by edict. For a half century the normal schools of America have been, more or less, copies of other institutions; sometimes strong through the large characters of men in charge; often feeble, through the vagueness of ideals, and ill-regulated efforts at transition.

Even now there is not a well-defined, institutional character, however full of promises. But the time seems ripe in sentiment for a more distinct ordering of the work as determined by the purpose for which normal schools are set apart.

To this end no other field appears to offer such promise of success as this of the work to be done in psychology; this fundamental to any broad, sound, and systematic doctrine of education.

DISCUSSION.

W. W. PARSONS, PRESIDENT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRA HAUTE, IND.

The paper just read emphasizes at the outset the necessity for a liberal scholastic training on the part of the teacher. It holds, and rightly, that scholarship is the fundamental qualification of the teacher. At the present stage of the world's educational advancement, it cannot be too often and too strongly said that no mere excellence of method, no technical or professional training for the school-room can in itself be offered as a substitute for a large and accurate scholarship. Clearness of thought breadth of view, solidity of judgment result most fully from the pursuit of a wide range of study undertaken without special reference to immediate life aims. Somewhere, under whatsoever conditions, these must be acquired by the teacher. Scholarship, then, is the prime requisite for intelligent work in the school-room.

But there is a strictly professional, a teacher's view of every subject of instruction; and this is at several vital points essentially different from the view furnished when the ends to be attained are those of general education and culture for their own sake. The normal school teaches arithmetic, geography, and history, not from the point of view that these are simply instruments to be employed in promoting general mind development and growth. It seeks rather to lead its student to build these up in his own consciousness in their organic aspects; to construct them in his own mind as coherent and orderly wholes, thought under and in accordance with the inherent relations of dependence existing in the subject-matter itself. While this view of the subject is probably the true one for any educational purpose, it is preeminently the teacher's mastery of it. In other words, a professional study of any one of these subjects will make the method of the subject a prominent object of attention. This is not strictly academic instruction, at least, in its popular acceptation. It is a professional aspect of the subject which, to be sure, rests upon and presupposes a mastery of it in its academic phases.

But a professional training seeks further to view every subject of instruction in its immediate relation to mind. It regards each as an outgrowth and product of mind; and, therefore, in the process of mastering the subject the pupil is at every step made conscious of the process by which he seizes it. He does not simply acquire the subject under its true logical or organic connections, but the very process of mind by which he translates this foreign world into the forms of his own conscious understanding are made subjects of reflection. And this because he in turn is to supply those conditions under which less mature minds shall most easily and effectually be led to acquire these subjects. It is held that this is somewhat different from academic work, and that it is a vital element in the teacher's training.

Still further, the normal school, in its nearest approach to instruction purely academic, couples with this a distinctively professional element. It is the function of general education to train the whole nature of the being whom it teaches; to start him in the direction and along the lines of becoming all that by his nature he is capable of becoming; to make him, in fact, in reality, all that he is implicitly. Every legitimate subject of study is to make its own peculiar contribution to this end. Arithmetic, history, geography,—every subject—is to open the pupil's eye upon a peculiar phase of the world of being. Each is to introduce him to a special view of the world. And in this fact consists very largely its value as an educational agency. It is the province of professional training to put the teacher in complete possession of this educational view of every subject he is to teach.

I wish, secondly, to reinforce a thought which I understand the paper to set forth with reference to the method of studying psychology in the normal school. Does this differ from the study of mental science in the college or university? Somewhat, it may be answered, both in the matter to be acquired and in the method of study. The diverse ends in view require this. The one teaches the subject as an element of a liberal, general scholarship; the other, as a tool which is to be employed at every step and in every phase of a special life work. Physiology and chemistry pursued as means of general education present a certain sphere of subject-matter for investigation; the medical student, who sees in them the factors of a rational procedure in treating disease, will think the facts of physiology and chemistry in a new set of connections. The normal school limits its study of psychology to those phases of the subject which are conceived to be more strictly and narrowly educational. It is not so much the aim to lead the student to construct the science of mind and reflect on this, as a science. His perceptions, comparisons, generalizations all relate directly to the special applications to be made of them. Moreover, the true method of mind study, especially as an element of professional training, is chiefly by reflection or introspection. A method of instruction in psychology which consists chiefly in the study of some text or treatise on the subject, without complete verification by appeal to conscious personal experience at every step, will result in the acquisition of the terminology of the subject, with little real working knowledge of mind itself. Psychology, in this sense, is easy of acquisition; but knowledge of mental conditions, processes, products, laws, acquired by patient, attentive reflection upon one's own mental operations, is the fruit of persistent, prolonged study. I would not depreciate nor underestimate the value of the collective judgment in this field of study, nor of the authority trained specialist, but it remains that a genuine working knowledge and appreciation of mind principles must result mainly from a prolonged study of the conscious active mind itself. Here, as in other fields, the student must be brought into vital contact with the thing itself.

That view which found expression in the paper to the effect that the student must from the beginning of his course be exercised on questions of psychological import cannot be too strongly insisted on. The highest phases of psychological study, involving an advanced degree of reflection and self-consciousness, must be deferred till near the end of the course; but questions requiring a less degree of reflection may properly arise in connection with every subject of study, and with due attention to their psychological bearings, not only will the habit of mind be induced which is necessary to the higher phases of mind study, but, should the student withdraw at the end of a single term or year, he will have some insight into and appreciation of mind activity, as the basis of intelligent school work.

Time permits no extended discussion of any of the numerous suggestive points which the paper contains. It is of especial value because of the great emphasis which it lays on the study of mind as the most important element in a professional preparation for school work. Nothing less than a rational, self-consistent theory of mind in its essential nature, capabilities, and destiny can transform the work of public school education from the veriest drudgery into a self-sustaining process of mind culture. If the whole field of educational endeavor is to become fruitful of the highest achievements, it must be by the completest adaptation of all external agencies and means to the inherent and necessary needs of the being who is the subject of the process. This view of the being reveals itself only to the attentive student of mind—not psychology, not mental science, not mental philosophy,—mind.

*Dr. Merton thought we were at sea in regard to the things about which we were talking. There is as yet no science of psychology.

Mr. Baldwin, of Texas. We know something of the phenomena of matter. We know more of the phenomena of mind. Every man has within himself the means of knowing himself. Why not assist pupils to know the facts of mind, as well as teach the facts of matter.

Dr. Hoose desired before the meeting closed to call attention to the great value of the papers and discussions which had been offered at its sessions.

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*Reported by the secretary.

Miss Tutweiler, of Alabama, asked some one to recommend to her some simple book on psychology.

The works of Allen, Hewitt, Brooks; White, Sully, Hopkins, and the forthcoming work of Baldwin were suggested by various members of the section.

PROCEEDINGS

—AND—

ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 13th, 1887.

The Department of Superintendence met according to previous announcement, at the rooms of the Board of Education, in the City Hall, July 13th, at half past two o'clock; and was called to order by the president of the department, Charles S. Young, of Nevada. Superintendent William Richardson, of Missouri, was appointed assistant secretary.

John Hancock, of Ohio, then read a paper on the theme, "School Supervision in the United States and in other States Compared."

The discussion was opened with a paper by Superintendent J. W. Akers, of Iowa, and continued by Superintendent Solomon Palmer, of Alabama.

The following committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year was then appointed: W. B. Powell, District of Columbia; Leroy D. Brown, Ohio; Louis H. Marvel, Maine.

The department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

The second session of the department was held at the same place, at half past two o'clock, July 14th, the president of the department in the chair.

The committee on nominations reported as follows: for President, N. C. Dougherty, of Peoria, Ill.; for Vice-Presidents, Henry A. Wise, of Maryland; and J. G Schofield, of Kansas; for Secretary, W. R. Thigpen, of Georgia. The report was received and adopted, and the gentlemen declared elected.

Superintendent Dougherty, of Peoria, Illinois, then read a paper on the theme, "The Superintendent and Good Literature in the Schools."

In the discussion which followed the participants were Messrs. Richardson, of Missouri, Strauss, of Arizona, Hoitt, of California, Gove, of Colorado, Colston, of Texas, and Wolf, of Missouri; and Mrs. Rickoff, of New York.

After the customary resolution of respect to the presiding officer and the secretary, the department adjourned.

SCHOOL SUPERVISION IN THE UNITED STATES AND OTHER COUNTRIES COMPARED.

DR. JOHN HANCOCK, OHIO.

The following paper presents a far less complete discussion of its topic than I had hoped to make. Unavoidable duties, not anticipated when I consented to its preparation, were thrust upon me, and this with the difficulty of procuring necessary books of reference, has contributed largely to a result so meager. Had not the honorable and learned J. George Hodgins, deputy minister of education for the province of Ontario, and Dr. F. Louis Soldan, lately president of the National Association, come to my aid,—to both of whom I return most grateful thanks, —I fear I should have failed most utterly in the duty assigned me by the president of this department.

When Victor Cousin, the eminent French philosopher and educator, more than half a century ago, published his observations on the schools of Prussia, in which he pronounces a touching eulogy on the underpaid but devoted teachers of the peasant schools of that kingdom, he declared that the chief element of success in any system of public education is a scheme of thorough inspection. The purpose of such an inspection may be stated in a very general way to be to determine whether the laws establishing this system are faithfully administered, and whether its teachers are doing efficient service along the lines prescribed by the State. Supervision would seem to be a more appropriate word than inspection to designate the functions of this department of school work. It is a more comprehensive term, and describes more nearly what is done under it, especially in American schools. To obtain the object of supervision, schools must not only be inspected but examined. Says Dr. John D. Philbrick, that distinguished educator so lately gone from our midst: "An inspection is a visitation for the purpose of observation, of oversight, of superintendence. Its aim is to discover, to a greater or less extent, the tone and spirit of the school, the conduct and application of the pupils, the management and methods of the teacher, and the fitness and condition of the premises. Good inspection commends excellences, gently indicates faults, defects, and errors, and suggests improvements as occasion requires. An examination is different from an inspection, both in its aims and methods. An examination is a thorough scrutiny and investigation in regard to certain determined matters for a specific purpose."

But superintendents,—in the United States at least,—though their prescribed duties vary considerably in different parts of the country, do other work not of less value than that named by Dr. Philbrick as belonging to supervision. Their work is not only critical but creative. They often have a large and, in my opinion should always have, an exclusive voice in the selection of the teachers who are to serve under their direction—and what can transcend in importance the getting of the right kind of teachers into a school? They also make courses of study and prescribe methods of instruction and school management. And beyond all, they ought to be, and often are, a source of inspiration both to teacher and pupil.

Theoretically, we should expect to find the working organization of a scheme of inspection, or supervision, to differ to some extent with the differing forms of the government of the States to be affected by it, and with the evolution of their several school systems; and practically, we find this to be the fact. The governments of the German States are more thoroughly patriarchal than those of any other modern nationalities. In these States all authority as to the organization and conduct of schools emanates from the central government, comparatively little being conceded to the several Committees. The State claims and exercises the right to supervise not only the State schools, including orphan asylums and reform schools, but parochial and private schools as well. Even where a few families engage a teacher for their children, the state supervises the instruction. The language of the law of Prussia is: (1) "The supervision of all private or public educational institutions belongs to the government. (2) The government alone has the right of appointing the circuit inspectors, and to fix the limits of their districts." The commission of the supervisors wherever such supervision is an honorary office simply, may be revoked at any time.

The government engages, however, that the wishes of the several communities in regard to religious instruction shall be regarded. These communities are also allowed to manage the external affairs of their common schools, such as those of a financial character, etc., without the intervention of the government. The government appoints the teachers with the co-operation of the community.

The general scheme of supervision for the German school system is this:

I. Provincial School-Commission. The function of this commission is (1) inspection of higher institutions of learning, such as gymnasia, normal schools, etc.; (2) examination of teachers and directors of common schools,—at such examination the provincial school-commission co-operates with the circuit superintendent; (3) selection of text-books and arrangement of a course of study for the common schools. The governor of the province is the presiding officer of the commission *ex-officio*. His representative is the highest government officer in the town in which the commission is located, and is called "Director." In Berlin and Hanover a special director of the commission stands in the place of the provincial governor. Among the members of the provincial school-committee there is always, at least, one of professional experience in teaching. His title is school-councillor.

II. Second in order comes Circuit Supervision. The circuit supervisor is a government officer; has supervisory control over local superintendents; and visits and examines schools in his district. He receives a salary and traveling expenses. In many cases the office of circuit supervisory is held by clergymen as an additional office; but the tendency is to make it more and more a special office to which the whole time of the occupant shall be devoted.

III. Local Supervision. Formerly the office of local supervisor was an honorary one, and was vested in the clergyman. Now supervision is no longer ecclesiastic but governmental. The clergyman may be and in most cases is, superintendent, but he is then a government officer. In villages and small places, the local superintendent is the only one who exercises supervision. In towns and cities there is a local board, variously termed school deputation, school commission, etc. These school deputations are composed (1) of one to three members of the governmental delegates to the city council; (2) same number of members from the elected council; and (3) same number of persons of experience in teaching—mostly from the clergy of the city. In this presentation of supervision in Germany, I have followed very closely the language of the notes furnished me by Dr. Soldan.

In no country, except Germany, so far as I am informed, does the government claim the right of inspection of private schools.

In regard to the scheme of inspection in the English schools, the Rev. James Fraser (now Bishop of Manchester), in an address delivered before the Ohio Teachers' Association, in 1865, uses the following language: "This office (that of inspector) is really the mainspring of the English system. Her Majesty's inspectors of schools are a staff of gentlemen—the majority of them in holy orders—selected by the president of the committee of council (the supreme authority in school matters), assigned a particular district or range of territory, on the average about a county apiece, and bound to visit all the schools within their district once every year. Their salary is $2500, with $1000 allowed them for hotel expenses, and their traveling expenses paid. They retain their office as long as they discharge its duties competently. Moderate retiring pensions are allowed to those disabled by age or disease. They are a very upright and competent body of men; and almost without exception enjoy the perfect confidence of the managers and teachers of the schools which they visit."

When the above was spoken all the inferior schools of England partook of the parochial character. Since then there has been created, with a compulsory feature, a true system of national education, under the name of "board schools"; but there has not been, so far as I am informed, any essential change in the scheme of inspection.

President McCosh in his address before the National Educational Association in 1873, says: "In one respect the education of the States is behind that of several nations of Europe, and will soon find itself behind that of Canada, Australia, and Hindoostan. We are here without that organized system of superintendency, by highly educated inspectors, set apart for the special work of visiting and examining schools, which is in thorough operation in England, Scotland, and Ireland, in Germany, Austria, and Holland, and in other lands. I am so old as to remember the time when this systematized inspection was introduced into Great Britain, and I noticed the immediate effect on the character of the teaching. I may sketch the Irish system of inspection, which is the best I have fallen in with in any country. First, there is an education board in Dublin with two high-class inspectors, ready to visit any school in Ireland in which a difficulty arises. There is a head inspector in every county, a highly-educated man, paid at a higher rate than the professors in the best American colleges; and there are trained sub-inspectors in every district. It is the business of each of these sub-inspectors to visit every school in his district at least once in the half-year, if possible once in the quarter, and in doing so to see that the scholars are properly organized into classes, to examine every class and every pupil, taking down in his book the designation of every class and the name of every pupil, marking the stage at which every class and every pupil is, and to leave in a book, for the benefit of the local managers and teachers, his estimate of the school, particularly mentioning the excellences and defects. When a defect is pointed out in the organization, or in any particular department, such as arithmetic or grammar, the teacher and local manager is bound to see it remedied. If this is not done by the time of his next visit, the case is reported to the board, which issues peremptory orders, which must be attended to at peril of the salary being withdrawn. If any dispute arises, which seldom happens, there is a privilege of appeal to the county superintendent or to the board itself. Besides these visits of sifting examination, the inspector may look in upon the school any time he is passing, to see that the proper order and the prescribed hours are kept. The inspection is far from being obnoxious to the teachers. They are enabled thereby to get valuable hints by which they profit. They are encouraged by the favorable notices taken of them.

They feel their work less dreary when they find their labors are appreciated; and excellent teachers become known to be excellent, and are put in the way of promotion. Parents and the community generally all know and acknowledge the benefit derived from superintendence, in the stimulus given the teacher and the efficiency and accuracy of his teachings."

France has long been noted for its facilities for middle, superior, and technical education; but its system of national primary education only reaches back to 1833, when M. Guizot was minister of public instruction. That system is largely imitative of the system of Prussia, as exhibited to the French people in the report of M. Victor Cousin, already mentioned. Under this system there was under the reign of Louis Philippe and the second Empire rather a slow growth; and it was not until the establishment of the present Republic that France, as at a bound, took her place among the foremost nations of the world in the education of the whole people. The scheme of this education is that of a rigid centralization. The head of it is a minister of the cabinet of equal rank with his colleagues, and not unfrequently the ablest man among them. In his hands is the administration of all educational affairs down to the minutest particulars, the inspection of schools included. The wonderful results that may be obtained from such centralization was shown by the French Education Exhibit in the late New Orleans Exposition—an exhibit probably never before equalled. It will have been noticed that in all the European systems of public education, except in France, the clergyman is given an important place. Indeed such was the case in the early history of our own country. That such should be the case is not surprising, for the clergy have always constituted that class of the community of highest character and learning. Besides, the vocations of teaching and preaching are nearly related.

I am strongly impressed with the belief that the Province of Ontario, Dominion of Canada, has, take it all in all, the best system of public instruction in the world. This system is almost entirely the result of the efforts of one man, the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, the superintendent of public instruction of the province for more than thirty years, during all which time he was ably supported by Dr. Hodgins, the present deputy minister of instruction. Among the other excellent features of the system, that of inspection has been carried to the highest degree of perfection. Says Dr. Hodgins: "We inspect everything, and take nothing for granted." There are in the province sixty-four county inspectors, ten town inspectors, one director of normal schools and teachers' institutes, two high-school inspectors, one county model-school inspector, and two separate school inspectors. It will be seen from the following extracts from the history of the school system of the province, that all these inspectors must be professional educators. Under the head of inspectors and their duties we find the following:

"The county, city, and town councils, in appointing inspectors, are limited to such teachers as possess certificates of elegibility, granted by the department, and to two classes only, namely, (1) holders of first class provincial certificates, grade A; and (2) graduates in arts, with first class honors, of any of the universities in the province, who furnish evidence of having taught successfully for five years, of which three at least must have been spent in a public school.

"County Inspectors.—The county inspector's duties are to inspect every school at least once in each term; to spend half a day in each school; to satisfy himself as to the progress made by the pupils from time to time; to examine into the methods of instruction pursued by the teacher; to teach a few model lessons himself; to ascertain the nature of the discipline exercised by the teacher; to examine the registers, also the apparatus, seats and desks, and all the internal and external equipments of the school-house; to report to the trustees in regard to such matters as require their attention; to give such advice as may be deemed necessary; to see that no unauthorized text-books are used in the school; to withhold the school grant in certain cases; to apportion the school grants according to the average school attendance of pupils; to decide complaints on certain conditions; to grant, on examination, temporary certificates; to suspend a certificate if necessary; to visit the county model school at least twice in each term; and to report on the state of the schools to the department, and generally to see that the laws and regulations are observed; make the apportionment of the legislation and county grants equivalent to each school; to act as chairman of the examining board of his district; investigate, confirm, or set aside the rural school elections; to call meetings of rate-payers; decide disputes; to suspend teachers' certificates, for cause.

"City and Town Inspectors.—The inspector of every city or town shall, in addition, perform such other duties as may be imposed upon him by the local board of school trustees."

It will readily be seen. from the above that the office of inspector of schools in Ontario is no sinecure, and that the assertion of Dr. Hodgins that "we inspect every thing" is fully verified.

The history of education in Japan for the last few years is one of extraordinary interest. No government in the world has exhibited more activity and enlightenment on the whole subject, and it is a question whether her system of schools does nor excel those of most of our States. The exhibitions of pupil's work in our two World's Expositions have been such as to give rise to the highest admiration. Mr. Hattori, education commissioner at the New Orleans Exposition, gives the following succinct statement of the Japanese system:

"The Japanese Empire is divided into forty-four divisions, or *keus*, and three *fu*, and has a population, according to the last census, of 37,041,-368. All the educational affairs of the country are under the control of a minister of education, who is a cabinet officer. Under him are a vice-commissioner and several secretaries. Each of these *keus* has a superintendent. Each *keu* or *fu* is divided into a large number of school districts. At first six hundred inhabitants composed a school district, but this plan could not answer, and now small districts are arranged according to the needs and location of the population. Owing to the fact that families in Japan occupy the same place for many centuries, the school district is a fixed one. The method of selecting a school committee is somewhat peculiar. The people elect many more committeemen than are required; and from these the governor selects such as he deems best for the office. The school age is from eight to fourteen years, and education for at least three sessions a year of sixteen weeks each is compulsory. Parents and guardians are responsible for the attendance of their children. Private tuition is permitted, but pupils thus instructed are examined with the children of the public schools, and if they fail to pass after three trials they are forced to attend the public schools."

Mr. Hattori does not state whether there are any superintendents below the superintendent of the *keu*, but it is to be presumed there are.

Having thus rapidly sketched the general features of the schemes of school inspection in some of the most progressive nationalities we turn to our own country. According to the genius of our government the nation can have no direct control over education in the several States. Within the limits of the States its powers extends no further than to general acts for the encouragement of learning. Each State, as though it were an independent nationality, adopts such a system of public education as seems to its legislators best or most expedient. And while there is a pretty close resemblance in the outlines of the educational systems of these States, there are marked differences in the details of those systems. For instance, some of the States—a large majority—have normal schools, the others do not; most of them have county superintendents, but the remainder are without such officers.

The highest educational officer of a State is the state superintendent, or commissioner. The powers of these officers vary greatly. In some States he is truly the head and director of the whole scheme of education; in others he is a more *nominis umbra*. Below the state superintendents come the county superintendents, whose authority and duties vary as greatly according to their locality, as do the authority and duties of their superiors. Although in a few of the States—certainly in Ohio—there is permissive authority for the appointment of township superintendents, this authority has been exercised to such a limited extent, that we shall scarcely be warranted in considering this class of officers as a art of the educational machinery of any State. In addition to State and ounty superintendents, we have the local superintendents, or superinendents of city, town, and village schools. Here again we have the widest differences of authority and duties. These local superintendents are usually free from the control of county superintendents. It is under the workings of local supervision that the American system of education —if it is entitled to be so called—bears its best fruits; and it is only in the work of schools thus supervised that we can compete on favorable terms with the schools of the nations we have been considering. In the cities and large towns, the superintendent gives the whole of his time to supervision. In small towns more or less of his time is devoted to teaching, and in some he is superintendent but in name, all his time being spent in the instruction of his own classes.

Local superintendents are universally elected by the local school boards. County superintendents are, as a rule, elected by popular vote. State superintendents are elected in various ways,—by the legislature, state board of education, and directly by the people—the majority by the last method.

It seems to me that the best foundation for a system of state schools would be to make the township the educational unit, as it is the political. The scheme of sub-districts with their separate boards of school officers, so prevalent in the States, is a large element of discord and inefficiency in their country schools. The school affairs of the township should be conducted by a board of education elected at large, and rising in the scale, each county should have its board, best constituted, probably, by a delegate chosen from each of the township boards. Then to crown all, there should be a state board constituted by some scheme other than an election by the people. I know of none better than that of Indiana, which seems to me a happy inspiration. Each one of these boards should be required to select a superintendent for the educational autonomy over which it exercises jurisdiction. It is a very old maxim that, as is the teacher so is the school; and is it not equally true that, as is the superintendent so is the system of schools under his directions? And as the field of the latter is the wider, insomuch is the question of his fitness for his position the more important. That we shall be able to select able and learned men for supervision through the means of a popular election, at any time in the near future, is the vainest of delusions. That this kind of men are occasionally selected thus, does not militate against my general statement. Think of selecting the superintendent of the schools of New York, or St. Louis, or Chicago in this way!

Of all the defects in our country schools the lack of supervision is the most pervading. Ohio expends something over ten millions a year on her public education. At least half of this goes to the support of her ungraded country schools; and it is safe to say, that the half of this half is wasted. By this I mean that if a system of thorough organization and supervision were adopted for this class of schools, their efficiency would be more than doubled.

If we should compare—possibly contrast is the better word—the schools of Germany, France, Holland, England, Scotland, Ireland and Ontario with those of the United States, in an unprejudiced frame of mind, it might give us surcease of boasting. Think of the ample provision made in the countries named for the training of teachers, in most of which no one is allowed to enter upon the instructor's duties, without special training for them; of the care taken to secure learned and competent men for the office of school inspector; of the long tenure of office for both, with a government pension at the end; and then think of our own country, with the great body of her teachers entering upon their calling with no special preparation for it, our superintendents often almost as inexperienced, with our short terms of office for both, and particularly for the latter, and with neither provision nor hope for old age, and what must be our conclusion? In one respect the balance is in favor of the United States, and that is in the unbounded generosity with which our people pour out their money for educational purposes. This generosity deserves better educational results than we are now getting, and the most important measure for the attainment of this end will be the introduction into the educational systems of the States a well-organized and thorough scheme of supervision for every class and grade of schools with wise and cultivated men for supervisors. This is by far our most pressing need. And is there not here something for this department of the National Association to do?

DISCUSSION OF DR. HANCOCK'S PAPER.

SUPT. J. W. AKERS, IOWA.

The difficulties in the way of contrasting the systems of public instruction that prevail in the old world and the new arise from the diversity of history and government in these respective countries, and the kind of civilization they have severally obtained. The social life of the people gives character to every institution, and custom, and movement, in which the whole nation participates; and it is impossible to estimate fairly the peculiar value of any of these, without realizing to some extent the social point of view from which they sprang.

This, however, is the historian's task, and as it falls to us, on this occasion, to attempt a comparative estimate of the systems of school supervision that prevail on European and American soil, we must endeavor to realize the differences of social life from which these respective systems took their rise.

In the first place almost all the European nationalities that have been active in the school work are constitutional monarchies; and whatever disadvantages this form of government may labor under, it has the advantage of a direct and compact exercise of its rule. Their systems are all national systems, whilst in this country no national system has as yet been attained.

We may look at this point a little more in detail. A constitutional monarchy involves a theory of sovereignty quite the reverse of that which lies at the foundation of our North American Republic. The people are not its repositories, and share in it only by reason of larger and larger concessions made to them by the ruling class, or purchased by them at the expense of revolution and blood. In a constitutional monarchy the authority comes down from above; in a republic it comes up from below. In the latter case the people are the sovereigns; in the former it is the privileged class. Of course when the forms of popular government prevail largely, and are gaining year after year wider areas of the political domain, it may come about, finally, that there may be but a mere shadow of the monarchy left. The king, the queen, the reigning nobility are mere figure-heads, and to all practical intents and purposes the people, through their representative bodies, rule.

What we are urging now as greatly in their favor, so far as school supervision is concerned, is the compact strong government they bring to the task. In organizing a system of public schools, the government will be represented by a minister of public instruction, and he will stand at the head of an educational council; with a provincial school commissioner in each province for the general administration of school affairs, and proper sub-divisions for the examination of teachers. All these officials represent the State; all supervisory power is derived from the State, and is exercised only under its control.

Take Prussia as a typical example of this sort of control. There, all educational establishments, both public and private, are under the control of the minister of public instruction, with local supervision for each province. All persons having the requisite qualifications are at liberty to teach, or to establish schools, but every town or community must maintain a school supported by the taxes and administered by the local authorities, and all parents are compelled to send their children to one or other of these elementary schools, whether they can pay the school fees or not. It will be seen that the government takes the whole management into its own hands, and that the people have no option in the matter.

There is thus a strong and absolute rule for a beneficent end.

But we must notice a disadvantage under which these systems almost uniformly labor. In Prussia the minister of public instruction is also minister of ecclesiastical affairs. This is because the school system has never been drawn out from ecclesiastical control. Church and state are united, and these two powers are jealous of their respective prerogatives in the management of the schools. The damaging effect of this double-faced administration on school supervision is everywhere apparent; and the otherwise peerless system of Prussia will never be seen at its best until the schools are secularized.

The disturbing influence of what is called the religious question is illustrated in many prolonged struggles for reform in the European schools. Saxony, in 1873, made long strides toward tearing the schools loose from ecclesiastical control. And when France began her new career as a republic, she re-organized her school system, making it non-religious and free.

On more than one occasion the Prussian government has felt itself on the eve of a great revolution, because of the stubborn and unmanageable character of this problem in school supervision. The methods and measures adopted by the State were not always acceptable to the church officials who had a share in the management of the schools. And so constant annoyances were arising, and the conflicting interests of church and state could hardly fail to harass and cripple the system throughout its whole extent.

But, perhaps, the most remarkable and instructive illustration of the damaging effect of the religious difficulty is found in the educational hisory of Great Britain. Since the days of the English revolution, England has met this difficulty at every turn. It was in accordance with the civil polity to tolerate the widest extremes of religious belief within her borders, and still maintain the church of Henry VIII. in closest intimacy with the national life. And yet since the days of Alfred the Great, parochial schools have spread all over the land, and the great mass of the population got what education they could in these parish schools. When, however, Protestantism had divided itself up into many and unfriendly denominations, and these had to maintain their ground against the Catholic communion, reluctant to give up its hold, it was inevitable that the parochial schools would be equally divided, and the ecclesiastical management at war with the management of the State.

The result of all this has been that England has never taken upon herself the direct burden of the public schools. Her system is one of State aid. She provides that local boards may found schools, and then that the public treasury may be drawn upon in support of these schools, provided the government inspector shall favorably report. The government stands aloof, as if to hold the responsibility at arm's length, as an almoner to needy corporations when they shall verify their wants. The annual aid grants are limited to elementary schools and training colleges for teachers, and the one prime condition of all others on which appropriations can be made, is that no religious observances, or attendance at any church or Sunday school, must be imposed as a condition of admission to the school; and that religious observances and instruction on religious subjects, must be either at the beginning or at the end of the school session, and must not be compulsory.

We are scarcely able to speak confidently on the practical workings of such a system without being in it; but there are certain difficulties and short-comings which in the nature of the case must adhere in it. An arm's length policy cannot bring the State near enough to the mass of the people to take them all in. When the founding and maintenance of the schools rests upon the optional movements of local boards, and the too often hasty or capricious representations of the government inspector, it would be a marvel indeed if large masses of the population were not overlooked, even in spite of compulsory regulations on the part of local boards. And now what do statistics say? The per cent. of school population in attendance upon the schools in England and Wales, as contrasted with Denmark, or Prussia, or Saxony, combined with the per cent. of adult population in these respective countries who can read and write, will, I think, indicate the weak place in this system. The per cent. of school population attending school in England and Wales is 68, while Denmark is 92, and Prussia, 91, and Saxony, 101; the per cent. of adult population able to read and write in England and Wales is only 84,—small indeed a compared with Prussia, which is 94. Little better than half the schoo population of England is in attendance upon the schools.

It is true that we have no better showing in this country, but clearly it is not because of the defective system of school supervision that prevails here, but because of the newness of our country, and the unsettled condition of the vast immigrant population floating in upon us. In England the social status is of long standing and homogeneous. The disability in her school system has its historical roots in the religious struggles of the past. For this reason all attempts of her great statesmen to establish a national system of popular education have failed, and to-day we witness the strange anomaly of the greatest empire of modern times having only an indirect interest in the education of the masses subject to her control.

Another peculiarity of the European systems of school supervision arises out of the historical precedance which higher education has had in the development of their schools. A system of public schools, as we understand it in this country, is a system of elementary and more advanced instruction, laid down in the very bosom of the masses, intended to redeem all classes of society from ignorance, and secure them a degree of intelligence that will enable them to discharge their duties as citizens well. Higher education may organically enter into this system by crowning it, as the goal to which elementary education may gradually ascend. This will require a kind of school supervision, the main stress of which must fall on the district and city schools. An essential feature of it—as we have observed it in this country—is the office of the county superintendent and the superintendent of the city schools. All the schools of the county, the district, and village and city schools are subject to the oversight of one officer, who is made responsible for the qualifications of the teacher, and in a general way, for the management of the schools. So important is this ultimate unit in our American system of school supervision, that we are wont to say that our distinctive school system took shape when this office was established. The whole character of any school system is determined by the kind of supervision which it requires or admits. And inasmuch as in our American systems the whole structure of school organization rests on the masses, and is intended to reach every child of legal school age, it will be apparent at once that an ascending scale of supervision, running from the civil unit up through county and city supervision to the general superintendency of the State, will be required to carry this system into effect. The county superintendent will reach the farthest district school. The city superintendent will have all the school interests of the city under his control. The high schools will be so organized as to be fitting schools for the university, and all will be answerable to the superintendent of public instruction for the State.

From all this it will appear that it is in accordance with the very genius of our American system of public schools that supervision should ascend with the ascending stages of the organization, from the district school through the high school and university, to the general supervision of the State. Now in none of the European states is there any system exactly analogous to this. From the days of Charlemagne on down to comparatively recent times, higher education was almost the only education they knew. The universities were the only schools which received the fostering of the State. All popular education was given over to the very meager and exceedingly uncertain methods of the parish schools. In fact it was reserved for this country to originate a system of public schools, the very first that was entitled to the name, a system for the people, for the whole people, and not merely for the aristocratic and privileged classes.

A very great difference is thus observable in the management of the schools, even in those European states where at a comparatively early date the work of elementary education was energetically undertaken. A descent was made from the higher education of the universities, with their traditional methods, to the elementary schools; and we can imagine the essential difference of outcome from what would be the result when the process of development ran the other way; from the universities down, on the one hand and on the other, from the elementary schools up.

But let us look at some of these differences as they appear in actual fact.

First, the grading of schools is a feature indigenous to our American school organization. It was found that where elementary instruction, and not higher education, was the fruitful germ in the system, that there must be graduated stages of advancement from the lower to the higher, through a system of promotion that would gauge the progress of the pupil with reference to the ultimate object to be attained. The history of the American system of graded schools forms a most interesting chapter in the evolution of educational methods, but it is a chapter that has not yet been fully written out. The growth of the system is marked by the development of city schools, and may be said to have been the special product of city supervision, which also it, in turn, by reflex action, carried to a degree of efficiency nowhere else witnessed in the world. Our graded system, with its accompanying system of superintendency, has been imitated in some of the larger cities of the old world, notably Birmingham and London, but in all such cases it is obviously an exotic, and has always the appearance of having been superinduced. Both in England and Germany the historical antecedents forbid any such compact and rigidly subordinated system as prevails in our city schools. To an American, accustomed as he is to this nicely adjusted machinery of organization, as ideally represented in our city schools, the schools of the most advanced European nationalities have the appearance of hanging loosely together. and so to that extent not closely under the supervision of the State.

And now as the whole question of school supervision is virtually bound up in that other one of school organization, and gets its character and determination from this source, we cannot pass by, unnoticed, two formidable criticisms of our American graded system in particulars in which it is alleged our whole system of supervision is either hampered or curtailed First, school organization is rendered mechanical in its routine; and, second, the graded system being practicable only in cities and towns, the great mass of the rural population is thrown out.

As to the first of these, the danger of mechanism in the routine of graded schools, it will suffice to say that the leading educators of our country have been cognizant of this trouble from the first, and have been aware of the disadvantages the individual teacher must encounter in the direct supervision of a graded school. Here is a school for example, of fifty pupils, of every variety of mental capacity, and by no means uniform in attainment, thrown together in one department upon some general standard of promotion, and all alike to be subject to the same regime, and to be passed through the same routine. The work of the department is prescribed; the hopper is there and the daily grist is to be punctually ground.

Now it is said that the schools of Germany and England with their looser supervision are not subject to this blight; that their organization admits of easier adaptation to the peculiar wants of individual pupils, and more thorough work is in this way accomplished.

To all this it is a sufficient reply to say, that the difficulty is one that attaches, primarily, not to a graded system of schools, but to the necessity of classifying large masses of children for the purpose of instruction This necessity inheres in every system of public schools, and is by no means relieved, but rather enhanced, by the absence of rigid supervision in grades.

To the other objection there is greater force. If the ideal supervision of our American school system is found in organization of our city schools, how does it come that such supervision is not feasible in our rural districts, that the whole mass of our country population is shut off from the benefits of our graded schools? Our answer to this is that none of the European systems get nearer the rural population than does our own. But there is this difference: Our system may be so modified as to bring the advantages of our graded system to every out-lying country school; whereas it is hardly in accordance with the genius of European systems to extend to the rural populations such minuteness of supervision. Mr. Hurlbert has made a report to the United States commission for education, on the condition of the English rural schools, in which he says that the towns in England are so large and numerous, "and their schools so varied and attractive as almost entirely to eclipse the generally small schools of the rural districts."

"As I enquired," he goes on to say, "of educational men in the cities concerning their rural schools, I invariably received the reply that I would find nothing outside of the cities. But how 1,000,000 of children,"—which is the number of school population in the rural districts—"are educated, is a question of no little importance, and its examination has proved that the rural schools form a most interesting and instructive part of the educational system of England." He goes on to show that the rural schools of England are vitally crippled by the "pass system" to obtain the government grant, and that they must remain so as long as that system continues. Indeed that "pass system," which is fundamental in the whole school organization of England, is an insuperable obstacle in the way of a thorough system of graded schools.

On the contrary, our system of supervision is not only capable of getting nearer the rural populations, but is daily craving it, and awaits only the time when our denser population shall demand it. It was the newness of our country, an exigency growing out of the formative period of our national life, that suggested the county as the ultimate unit in our system of public schools. I have no doubt but that in all the States and at no very distant day, the township—which is the ultimate civil unit—will also be the ultimate school unit for our ascending system of supervisory control. The county superintendency, whose advent gave character to our system, will never lose one whit of its importance, but instead of being the first step in the process, it will be the second; the township, principalship, and the superintendency of our city schools being tributary and subordinate to it. There can be no question about it, all the distinctive features of our system should exist in potency in the township schools. Thus far in our comparative estimate, we have found that the European systems of school supervision are embarrassed by two difficulties, both of which are historically excluded from our American system, namely: first, the religious difficulty, and second, the inverse order of development, from higher education down. Our schools are secular and their supervision is of the State, with no manner of interference on the part of the church. They aim to be a rigid system of graded schools with a system of superintendency to correspond, beginning at the very basis of our social organization and running up, and in no way embarrassed by the effete traditional methods of the "dead past."

There is still one other disability under which the European systems labor, unknown to us, and which in a comparative estimate of this kind we cannot overlook. With possibly the exception of France and Switzerland, there are none of the European countries in which elementary education is absolutely free. In many of them provision is made for paying the fees of the indigent out of the public fund, but this is in no sense equivalent to making tuition free. There is a profound difference of theory that sets off the free school from a class of schools that are only provisionally free,—a difference as to the degree of responsibility devolving on the State with reference to the impartial education of the children and youth under its care. When the State engages in this work of education, is the service of the nature of a charity, or is it of the nature of discharging a debt? It has been fundamental in our system of public schools, and the legitimate out-growth of our free institutions, that the State holds itself bound to secure to all its citizens an amount of mental and moral discipline sufficient to equip them for the responsible duties that will rest upon them in mature life. It is due every child that he be put in the way of becoming a staunch pillar of the State—a republican idea, and not wholly congenial to the most liberal of constitutional monarchies of the old world. When, therefore, France threw off the monarchy, and adopted a republican form of government after the model that prevails with us here, she immediately made her elementary schools non-religious and absolutely free. It will be seen then, that free schools are the natural and legitimate off-shoot of a government that holds all its citizens as equals before the law.

We are, however, more immediately concerned at the present time with the bearing of this feature of the European schools on the kind of supervision that prevails there, as contrasted with an analogous order of things in operation among us. One of the world-wide problems in school supervision is the expediency and successful enforcement of a compulsory school law. With regard to the first point, the necessity and expediency of compulsory education, there is a wonderful unanimity all over the world; and some of the European states—notably Prussia—have been remarkably successful in executing their law. But the outcome of the experiment thus far, both in England and Germany, is that compulsory education is compatible only with a system of schools that are absolutely free. On various occasions the Boards of the larger cities of England and Scotland—London, Birmingham, Glasgow, feeling the force of this principle, have paused in the midst of their efforts to enforce the compulsory law—to make a motion and earnestly to discuss the practicability of making the schools free. These attempts, so far as we are apprized, have uniformly failed. But the reasonableness of the effort has been summarily stated in this way: "1. Compulsory education is enforced in the interest of the whole community, and will be most effectually carried out under a free system. 2. The fees, however small, act as a direct tax upon attendance and tend accordingly to prevent the result for which the schools are established, the expense incurred, and the compulsory laws enforced."

In our own country the schools are absolutely free, but the experiment of compulsory school legislation has only been partially tried. State after State, however, has been falling into line, and when the experiment comes fairly to be set on foot, we know that this peculiar old world obstacle will not be in the way. We shall feel that there is no incongruity in forcing upon ignorant and inert parents a gratuity of privilege with reference to the education of their children, which discharges a debt the government owes to her citizens, and in the liquidation of which the life of the nation is conserved. It is not only expedient, it is the duty of the State to force upon delinquent parents what will involve them in no money expense, and will cost them only the amount of energy that will put them into a position to receive. There may be other difficulties in the way of compulsory education in this country, something even in the peculiar genius of the free institutions under which we live, that will brook all coercive measures to get and keep the children at school, but there will never be any toll required at the school house door.

I may be allowed, in closing, to say that my task has been a difficult one because of the intimate blending of school supervision with the subtler and less familiar operation of school organization and life. The mere machinery of European school supervision, like our own, can only be appreciated by getting down to the primal springs of the social and intellectual life out of which this machinery has emerged; otherwise it is mere machinery and nothing more. The task is a larger one than our time or available resource would encourage us to undertake, but it opens out a most interesting field, and beckons some competent educational specialist to enter in. In these days of comparative research what more promising avenue for discovery and inspiration, and varied profit than a comparative estimate of the school systems and school methods, and school supervision of the most cultured nations of ancient and modern times—a work for pedagogy which remains yet to be done.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND GOOD LITERATURE IN TH SCHOOLS.

OSCAR H. COOPER, AUSTIN, TEXAS.

Evolution has been the most fruitful thought of this century. I science, philosophy, and education, all processes have been producti according as they have conformed to its laws. In our social life, no p cess has illustrated the doctrine of development more clearly than t growth of the common school. In accordance with these laws, secu ization of education has resulted from secularization of life and soci The control of education by religion has passed away, most probably f ever. The state has taken the place of the church in training the you

This condition of one of the most important interests of society fraught with peril to the progress of the race. The spiritual natur man is his higher nature, and if his higher nature be stunted or subor nated, progress must cease. Better mediæval superstition with its lof if mistaken spiritual aspirations, than the dead sea of materialism.

Whither then shall we, the children of this last quarter of the nin teenth century, look for the safeguards which shall protect society fr this threatened evil?

I am persuaded that one of the strongest bulwarks against the destr tive tendencies in our civilization will be found in the general growth the love of good literature in our schools. Good literature is the one i perishable possession of the race. Nations rise and fall, religions spr into being and give place to other religions, cycles of culture devel mature, and pass away, but literature remains—κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί. The nobl heritage of the past to the present is its imperishable literature; th noblest bequest of the present to the future will be the priceless though clothed in choicest language, of our writers both of poetry and pros for in literature "the precious life-blood of the master-spirits is treasur up to a life beyond life." If our common schools are to aid in correcti the materialistic tendency of civilization, they must be reinforced, on t spiritual side, by infusing into them a larger and more general love good literature.

This grand movement will be most effectively achieved by the concert action of the superintendents, state, county, and city. In some Americ states the legal authority of the superintendent is very great; in mos his moral power is bounded only by his intellectual and spiritual horizo

He stands as a foremost representative to teachers, pupils, and patrons, of the educational wisdom of the time—one of the highest forces in modern civilization. His advice has the prestige of a command; his influence, if he fill the full stature of his position, is well-nigh messianic. He is charged with the duty of advising legislative bodies and of issuing instructions which bind his subordinates to obedience. The influence which the superintendent may bring to bear for the promotion of good literature in the schools, if wisely exerted, will secure the success of the movement.

As to the methods by which the superintendent may promote the use of good literature in the schools, I venture to suggest the following:

1. Either by his advisory or authoritative action, he may reform with reference to this end, the course of study in the schools. I know not how it may be in other States, but in my own State, Texas, there are not a dozen schools in which any instruction is given in this subject to children under fourteen years of age. As a general thing, children close their school life with no knowledge whatever of literature. Although they have learned to read, often in a mere mechanical way, they have read nothing; nor have they even learned that there is anything of permanent value worth reading. It is not strange that children so taught find what satisfaction they may in desultory reading of the daily or weekly newspapers, or the sensational fiction which has come into being in response to the demand of uneducated taste. That such a system of teaching reading is wasting the precious energies of our people is obvious; it is doing more, it is corrupting the heart of the nation at its core. Here I think that the carefully graded readers, which have come into general use, are at fault. They are so carefully graded, and difficulties have been removed so completely, that they contain oftentimes almost nothing worth reading. If, instead of droning our trivial, commonplace incidents, the child had been given something notable to read, he would not only have acquired the art more completely, but he would also have gained knowledge which would be of enduring value. There is a large mass of literature evolved in the child-life of the race, which possesses for children in primary grades, an imperishable interest. The fairy tales and folk-lore, which comparative philologists have traced back far beyond the dawn of history, have the intrinsic worth of kindling in the child-mind the ennobling consciousness of "the light that never was on sea nor land." They are stories that have in them the freshness of immortal youth. Simple narrations, too, of the heroic deeds of men and women in all ages, men and women who have been faithful and brave even to death, enchant and ennoble the child-mind to which all things seem possible. What comparison in intrinsic worth between such stories and the doings of some imaginary cow, dog, or boy?

Beyond the primary grades, the readers improve somewhat in literary tone. But how few and far between are the selections which form a part of the world's literature! The bookmaker's sack is out of all proportion to the real bread. There is no good reason why some of the writings of good authors should not be read by children who use intelligently the average fourth reader. Henceforth, regular instruction should be given in the great authors whose works are adapted to all grades of mental development. The reading hour instead of being devoted wholly to the graded lessons, admirably adapted to making the pathway as smooth as possible, should be largely spent in making pupils acquainted with masterpieces, first in our own literature; then, in the literature of England; and afterward, through translations, if need be, in the literatures of other lands and tongues. The literature of our own land is incomparably more important to the American student than that of any other land. It is fortunate for us that the practically unanimous verdict of competent critics places in the list of world's enduring authors, so many Americans, whose works embalm in noble form the love of our own land. Some of our best poetry and prose, giving the highest expression to national feeling, have enshrined the impulses of patriotism in words that will never die. The sentiment of love of one's country which slumbers in every mind, awakened by these "thoughts that breathe and words that burn," in the plastic mind of the youth will live on to animate and inspire to the duties of citizenship. A book containing all the noble and inspiring utterances which are found in our literature concerning our country, and used as a text-book in the schools, would not fulfil this need. Such fragmentary passages, taken from the parts to which they stand in vital connection, lose more than half their power. These works should be read as wholes, or at least so much of them as is necessary to give expression not only to the sentiment of patriotism but that of righteousness in forms beautiful or sublime. For not only the feeling of patriotism, but also the larger love of righteousness and of beauty are best cultivated by the reading of good literature.

Our best poetry and highest prose have kept alive the oft slumbering fires of patriotism. They have passed on the torch, giving warning and hope to the nation. The one place above all others where they should kindle the holy fire of patriotism is where the "young have met together in those American temples, which the people have built" all over this great country. The permanence and wholesomeness of our national institutions depend upon the vitality of the sentiment of patriotism. It is my conviction that deep and permanent cultivation of this sentiment will be most effectively secured by making the youth of this land familiar with our standard American authors.

II. Superintendents may foster and stimulate the formation of school libraries.

Every school comprising pupils old enough to read should have its library, small it may be, yet large enough to contain some of our chief American classics. Even when provision for libraries cannot be made from the school fund, the efforts of the teachers and pupils, if aided by the superintendents, will secure them. The selection of books for the school library should be made by the superintendent, or, at any rate, should be subject to his approval. In the Houston high school, in Texas, an admirable little library has been gathered, mainly by the efforts of the students of the school, directed by the teachers and superintendent. It has been found an excellent plan there to allow students, not otherwise occupied, to devote their time to reading some book from the library. The privilege thus accorded has not only raised the tone of the mental life of the school, but also, proved a useful aid in discipline.

III. The superintendent, aiding the faithful teacher, may do much to foster the habit in pupils of reading good books at home.

If the school does its work well, it gives to the pupil far more than a mere mechanical knowledge of the art of reading: it implants in him the love of reading. All poetry, all eloquence, all history, all philosophy are open to him who has formed the love of reading and the habit of reading wisely. Was not Fénelon right when exclaimed, "If all the wealth of both the Indies and the crowns of all the throned heads in Europe were laid at my feet, in exchange for my love of reading, I would spurn them all"?

I have made no allusion to the use of supplementary readers in diffusing good literature in the schools. Their use meets to some extent the demands of this growing spirit. But more is needed. The reading of the masters in thought and style can not long be relegated to a secondary place in the real American university—the common school. Nor have I mentioned the occasional devices adopted to promote acquaintance with good literature, such as the excellent custom of commemorating the birthdays of our most famous literary men by appropriate exercises, and the memorizing of short selections with the names and dates of the authors. I do not underrate the value of such exercises, but I would enter my protest against the claim of such exercises to be a worthy substitute for the continuous reading and study of the works which have shed on this life of ours whatever of sweetness and light it possesses.

IV. The superintendent, in licensing teachers, should require adequate knowledge of literature, especially of our own literature, as a condition of granting certificates.

No man or woman possesses the true spirit of teaching who is not imbued, to some extent at least, with the love of good literature. The children should "drink from a living stream, not from a shallow and stagnant pool!"

These are some of the ways in which, it seems to me, the superintendent may promote the use of good literature in the schools. If he be himself a lover of good literature, his success will be certain, and his reward passing sweet. For good literature is "the blossom and fragrance of all human knowledge, thought, emotions, passions, and language." From this source come the noblest and highest enjoyment, and the ripest and finest culture.

DISCUSSION.

AN ABSTRACT.

Superintendent Dougherty, of Peoria, opened the discussion.

Literature is the efflorescence and fruitage of all human thought. But for Homer, Troy and all her heroes would long since have been forgotten; Greece and Rome derived their chief glory from their philosophers and orators; the brightest era in English history derives greater lustre from the literature of Spenser, Shakespeare, and Bacon than from the martial and civil triumphs of Elizabeth. Literature, therefore, has claims that no intelligent being can afford to disregard. Natural development depends upon proper food. The superintendent must have a care that the school points the proper way to the pupil; that it guides his choice of books; that it secures the proper results of his reading. He must see that the school makes it a part of its definite work to mould this side of the pupil's intellectual growth as that of any other side. Good books may be read in a manner to confuse the young mind, and an inordinate amount of good reading may deaden perception. Against these dangers the superintendent must provide. Renan and Arnold say Americans read more than any other people, but are lacking in intelligence, while Carlyle says: "The United States has succeeded in producing more bores in a given number of years than any other people that has ever existed." By intelligence they mean open-mindedness, free-mindedness, ability to see the beauties that lie around us. Americans lack these, they say. Is the criticism just? If so, how are we to correct this fault? An acquaintance with the best thoughts in literature is suggested. Let us not simply read what is best, but make ourselves familiar with it. He who is thoroughly acquainted with Shakespeare or Emerson will have a wonderful access of that intelligence which may be defined open-mindedness. But to secure this intelligence, a long acquaintance with the author is necessary. We must learn to love the poet before we can understand him. A great book is as rare as the most heroic type of man, and is much less easily recognized. The few which the world has accepted as really great are the ones with which we should seek to have our pupils become familiar.

Let us give our pupils intelligence in its fine sense. Let us banish the idea that knowledge is simply a means to get money. Let us teach that great scholars and authors are far above the men of money; that it is best to have a cultivated mind, though you be a beggar forever. Let us impress upon our pupils that England is more in our thoughts, hopes, and loves, for her Shakespeare, and Milton, and Wordsworth, and Gladstone, than for all her cotton manufactories and foundries. So doing we shall have prepared them for the highest citizenship.

Supt. Solomon Palmer, of Alabama.* I have been in this city two whole days trying to take in this Association in its vast numbers, various departments, and wonderful exhibit, devoting all my spare moments to trying, but in vain, to get my return ticket stamped, so I might see more of the school exhibit in the exposition building so creditable to the schools of America. This effort has been too great for one coming from the genial clime of a gulf State to this sultry city, and the result is that I am sick this afternoon, so feeble that I can scarcely stand; but for this fact I would take pleasure in discussing the admirable paper just read by Mr. Hancock. I will, however, say that I was well pleased with the paper and endorse it heartily in its entirety. The subject of school supervision is important, yes, of vital importance to the public school system of the United States. It is this supervision that serves as a connecting link, a bond of union, between the school and the source from which financial support is derived. Without supervision we cannot long hope to have the support and hearty co-operation of the State, the county, or school district which supplies the money. Supervision in a sparsely settled country like ours, is desirable to secure efficiency in school management and instruction; without it we would have but little progress in developing and perfecting our school system.

In Alabama, unlike most States, the county superintendent is appointed by the state superintendent, and the township superintendent by the county superintendent. This is not very democratic, but works very well, as the whole responsibility is lodged in the state superintendent. He endeavors to select men who will not only work in harmony with himself, but who will labor to make his administration a success by improving the condition of the public schools. It is to be regretted that the salaries paid county superintendents are so small that they can devote but little time to the visitation of the schools. I hope in the near future this evil will be remedied, and the county superintendent required to devote his whole time to securing greater efficiency in the public schools of his county. I am glad to be able to say there is no disposition among our people, as in some States, to dispense with the services of a county superintendent, without which no school system in this country can be complete. I regret the absence of Dr. Buchanan. If present, I know he would give you a valuable speech on this important subject.

President Young, when introducing Mrs. Rickoff, said: "She has done more than any other woman in the world to introduce good literature into our schools."

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* Reported by the secretary.

Mrs. Rickoff. Books provide us companionship for hours of loneliness, solace for pain and sorrow, and—if they are of the right stuff—stimulus and encouragement for our most refining and uplifting activities, and are often the inspiration to our noblest deeds. Such books are in the mind when one thinks of literature.

Literature, as distinguished from other subjects of school study, may then be said to be that which deals with the affairs of life, and as such becomes a prime factor in moral education.

When we recollect that, of the multitudes of children who enter our schools each year, a very large majority leave school at the age of twelve or thirteen years, it is borne in upon us with wonderful force how doubly important are all questions relating to the lower schools, and especially this one that has so great a bearing upon the formation of character.

Object lessons and oral teaching open gates for the inflow and the outflow of original thought; strength-giving discipline comes from the application and individual effort that some studies require; and manual training is a saving help in the growth of character; but that which is, and will be, the most fascinating, all-pervading, and far-reaching influence on the character development of the young is the literature they read.

Of the thousands of children who leave school so early, to earn their living as they must, how few will spend their small leisure in continuing their school studies? But how many of them will sit up late at night, and hide away in corners in the day time, to devour stories of wild adventure and romance? And of these stories, how many contain high ideals, grand and true lessons in living? And of these unfortunate young readers, how many have their brains stimulated far beyond natural and healthful development, and their tastes vitiated?

A child's reading needs to be on the plane of his ability to comprehend what is read, and this ability is limited by the circle that represents his general development, with a very large allowance for the out-puttings his imagination may make beyond this limiting circle. And it is just here, I think, that a serious mistake is often made in the selection of reading matter for children.

The now well-thumbed theory which represents the development of a child's mind by the circles of yearly growth of a tree may be improved upon. Have you ever taken a chip from a beech tree stump and noticed how easily the layers may be broken apart? It is not so with a child's mind. From each circle of his growth go out innumerable little feelers, eagerly seeking for more knowledge and binding all into a solid whole; and the food given to these feelers determines the character of the new growth and modifies the whole.

The out-puttings of a child's imagination correspond to a very large number of these feelers; and therefore, while a child should be given much information that is on the plane of his general development, food should be provided for this hungry imagination. Proper food for this purpose can be found only in the realms of pure literature and art.

The time is not so far back but that some of us can remember, when to speak of "literature" for the primary schools was an absurdity. Now many of the best writers of the times are busy making a "literature" for the youngest readers. God speed them, and hasten the day when their good work shall flood the land and flow into every household!

All good school readers contain much that is pure literature, well adapted to cultivate a correct taste, and graded to suit the child's gradual advancement; for these reasons they are often the best books for children to read in school. There should be in every school-room two or three different readers, one for use in learning the art of reading, and the others, for use in practicing it. But besides this, much supplementary reading is needed. We have some good supplementary readers, but we need more. We need much more reading matter, full of interesting information, such as biography, history, natural history, and science can give; but not this only; there should be poetry, romance, adventure, thrilling incident, and stirring action enough to satisfy the needs of the hungry imagination, and the demands of the social side of the child's nature. And this reading matter should be selected from material so pure and true, and, in style, so simple and refined, that there shall be cultivated in the school-room, during these first years, a taste that shall turn with indifference or disgust from that pernicious literature that is now on all hands so abundant and cheap—cheap because its readers are so many.

Mrs. Rickoff, in closing, spoke of literature as a tie that binds a people stronger than laws or customs, and referred to what Carlyle says upon this point in his "Heroes and Hero Worship," where he speaks of the value of Shakespeare and Dante to their respective nations.

PROCEEDINGS

—OF THE—

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, July 14th, 1887.

The Industrial Department met in the Chicago Opera House, at 2.30 P. M. The President, Professor J. M. Ordway, of Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana, opened the meeting with an extemporaneous address, in which he reviewed the progress of manual training, related his own experiences and observations in relation to it, proffered suggestions, and spoke of his hopes for the future of the great educational question of manual training.

All educators, he said, are agreed, to-day, that there should be industrial schools and industrial education. The past score of years has settled this question. Other questions have presented themselves, however, and in casting about for answers we are likely to go astray, unless we keep clearly before us the ultimate purpose of all education, the symmetrical development of the pupil in body and mind. The community cannot train to special trades directly, but should teach the elements of all work.

It is a good thing, of course, for the boys and girls to learn to work, and to become capable of earning a living; but those who advocate the furtherance of industrial education for the sole end of making money, are not on the right track.

It is not the intention, to-day, of the advocates of industrial education, to teach the pupil any special trade or profession. Such would be entirely out of the sphere of the public expenditure of money. This idea has been a bar to true progress wherever introduced.

Nor has there been satisfactory progress reported where the so-called Russian system has been tried—a system experimented with in Boston. This system teaches the pupil merely to make a part of anything, instead of allowing him to make the whole thing where he could see the defects of any part. It is a systematic attempt to classify the work in the workshop, by separating it from the making of actual objects. But shopwork cannot be classified like the work of literary branches. The Russian system may be the proper one for older classes; young people, however, want to make something whole. They do not analyze enough to understand parts.

Some years ago I visited the European countries, and found that industrial education was as much in its experimental state there as it is with us. In Germany, I visited a number of *Gewerbeschulen*, expecting to find regular manual-labor schools; but I found very little actual manual work done there. Prussia has a few trade schools, but these generally neglect the education of the man. In Sweden, I found a far better system. The Swedes come nearest to my ideal and the ideas we are trying to work out. In teaching arithmetic, we carry the work along so that pupils can take step after step without much help; the Swedish system does the same thing.

Comenius, during the Thirty Years' War, originated the Swedish idea, by trying to revive the old hand-work carried on during the long winter days. During the last few years, the Germans, the French, and the Hollanders have sent commissions to Sweden to study this system, and the press of Germany reports that they are making great progress in the adoption of the new method.

Industrial education has many friends in this country, but too many know very little about the work. It is becoming popular. Governors and mayors like to mention it in their addresses, and it bids fair to become the prey of politicians, from which may the Lord deliver us!

The question is being debated whether the state has any right to teach industrial education. Many insist that the public schools are already attempting too much, and that some studies should be thrown out rather than new ones introduced. We can answer these objections by claiming that a boy needs a variety of exercises. He needs physical exercise; and, if left alone, he will get it on the base-ball ground. Now this same time, or a part of it, used in systematic work, will give better results. It is the experience of all who are best informed, that a certain amount of systematic manual work is very helpful to general mental growth.

The question, to-day, is not so much what shall be done, as who should be so trained, and where; and how can this work be introduced best? In Sweden, they begin with the age of ten years; in New Orleans, at twelve; but it is my experience that even at this age, too many cannot use men's tools, and I would never permit the use of boys', or toy tools. Nevertheless, many kinds of work might be done before fourteen, the age at which wood-working tools can be best introduced.

In all of these experiments the girls have been ignored. What can they do and what can we do for them? Sewing, to mention a line of work which will come up as a subject for debate to-morrow, is a sedentary occupation, and our girls need a different kind of work to develop their physical constitution. Happily the time is rapidly approaching when women will not be confined to one kind of work. The old work of women has been encroached upon by man in the fields of weaving, spinning, and sewing. We have displaced them in their former sphere; and the time is coming rapidly when every human being will do what he is fit for without considering the sex. Old-time prejudices are wearing away. It is a fact that the women attending college are as healthy as the men, and hold their own in the recitation room, and in the laboratory. The girls should be given a chance to live as they may choose. The moral gain will be grand beyond contemplation.

The time is coming when we must develop both the mind and the body. Gymnastics might do the latter, but I believe that there are other ways. The wood-working tools are the things that will do this. If we come to develop this matter fully, I believe that nothing will meet the wants as completely as the use of wood-working tools. In casting about for ways and means, we must lay aside all prejudices and look to the eternal fitness of things in all directions. I hope that in future meetings of the section, the question will not be, Shall industrial education be taught? but How can we teach it?

The President then announced the subject for general discussion: "In Schools of what Grade, may Manual Training be most Properly Introduced?"

He began by stating that he favored commencing with high schools and working downward. As we have had more experience with older pupils, it would be less difficult to teach older classes. The expense is an important item also; and the high-school classes being smaller, would require less apparatus and less room. Such a course, too, would wonderfully increase the attendance in high schools, and would make manual instruction popular.

Professor Richards, of Washington, D. C., dwelt on the idea that all industrial education must look in the direction of general results, and of a symmetrical education of the man and the woman. He favored the starting of manual training with the child in the kindergarten, so that he should grow up to be familiar with the industries of life, and talk knowingly and sympathetically with the shoemaker, cook, or carpenter. Industrial education should bring people into sympathy with labor. There are a thousand ways to do this.

Professor Kilbourne, of Springfield, Mass., said that successful experiments had been tried there, with young pupils, by first teaching them to use a hammer, then a gauge, then a try-square. Next they were taught to cut wood into lengths and breadths, and then to make boxes.

Professor M. C. Woodward, of the Manual Training School of St. Louis, suggested that no one should speak over five minutes, so as to give every member a chance to express himself. He then stated that he had great faith in the kindergarten as a field in which to plant the idea of manual training; but he also warned against expecting and attempting too much in the public schools. Manual training is not cheap, and no one advocates it on this ground. It costs money and time, and should be done most carefully under the guidance of those who have taught it for twelve or fifteen years. Do not try to teach a boy eight years old what ought to be left to a boy fourteen years of age. Do not try to teach trades, and do not select the life-work for a boy too early. Give him his early training first. If properly and intelligently introduced, manual training will be worth all it costs, and work itself into favor with parents and taxpayers.

H. M. Leipziger, director of the Hebrew Technical Institute of New York, excused himself, on the ground of lack of time, for not presenting his paper as advertised in the programme, and offered instead an oral statement of his experience. He thought manual training was not a new, but rather a neglected, part of education, and maintained that there was suitable work for each grade, from the kindergarten to the college. It is necessary, however, to adjust it closely to the course. The gap between the work of the kindergarten and the work with wood-working tools of the higher classes, he would fill with pasteboard work, based upon geometry. He would make everything from drawings, and have the mathematics of all forms well understood. Pupils were fond of such work, and his experience had taught him that they preferred long hours under the manual system, and that their health was better.

Professor Miller, of Toledo, thought that manual training could be profitably introduced into the grammar school. Three years ago, when they commenced in the schools of Toledo, pupils of the high and grammar schools did the same work. At the beginning the high school was ahead, but at the end of the year the younger boys were benefitted equally with the others. At first we gave these pupils two hours in the shop and one hour in the drawing school each day. Next year we cut down the shopwork to one and a half hours; and, upon finding that the intellectual work of the grammar school was inferior to that of the high school, we reduced the time to forty-five minutes per day for each of the two branches, which I consider as the best arrangement.

Professor Miller's experience was interesting in regard to so-called dull boys, upon whom the effect of manual work was especially good. All classes liked the work very much, and the removal from the shop was considered a very severe punishment.

After referring to the work on exhibition in the exposition hall, the professor stated that at Toledo, the girls did nearly the same work as the boys. Carving is added for the former. Both sexes have in addition a good deal of laboratory practice. All seem benefitted in health by the work, especially the girls. And all "honors," except one, were carried off by members of the manual training classes.

Dr. Gillett, of Jacksonville, Illinois, spoke of the economic value of the new education and the powerful influence upon the boy of his knowledge that he is learning something which can be put to use.

President Ordway acknowledged that industrial education had an economic side, but he warned the teachers against looking at that side first, last, and all the time.

Professor Woodward advocated freedom upon the part of the pupil to enter the manual training classes, and spoke with feeling of the lifting up of the mechanic to a higher level of manhood.

President Ordway disagreed with Professor Woodward in regard to elective courses in high schools, but thought that here, as elsewhere, the teacher must know what will be best under the circumstances.

Dr. Thompson, of Indiana, expressed the hope that the new education would give the city boy that will-power and vigor which wins the prize for the country boy in nearly every race of life.

At the close of the meeting, the president appointed a committee composed of H. M. Leipziger, of New York; and Dr. Thompson and Professor W. C. Latta, of Indiana, to nominate officers for the ensuing year and report at the meeting of Friday. Professor Leipziger having left the hall, the name of Professor J. D. Walters, of Kansas, was substituted.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, July 15th, 1887.

President Ordway called the meeting to order. After reading the programme of the meeting, he stated that Dr. Felix Adler, of New York, who was to read a paper, was prevented from being present, and that the discussion of the subject, "Can the Teaching of Needle-work in Girls' Schools be Advocated on Pedagogic and Sanitary Grounds?" would be taken up at once.

The teaching of needle-work, he said, is much like the teaching of reading or writing—it must be taught properly, or it will not be learned at all. But it is a question whether it is of sanitary advantage. Needle-work includes, of course, cutting, fitting, knitting, crocheting, etc. The proper learning of this work is of great economic importance. Cooking is of a similar character, but it requires more physical work, that is, more varied exercise. The latter has been taught in many places very successfully; and, if utility were the end of education, I would place cooking along side, or even ahead, of sewing. If we put the study of reading or writing on economic grounds, we might do the same with sewing and cooking. Girls are not often permitted (?)to learn this work at home, and there ought to be places provided where instruction in these essentials can be had. Both studies have evidently some pedagogic value. They will benefit as diversions from purely mental work, and tend to enable the pupil to concentrate his mind on a single subject.

Mrs. Nellie S. Kedzie, Professor of Household Economy at the Kansas

State Agricultural College, urged the propagation of the cooking and sewing idea as essentials of the proper educational development of girls. In the past years, she declared, few mothers had taught their daughters the proper method of household management; and it therefore devolved upon the school to do so. It is hardly right, she said, to take the entire time of the pupil for mind work. A fair proportion should be devoted to learning practical things. Girls should be instructed so that, if it should become necessary for them to become servants, they would be good ones: and if they were to be mistresses, they would be capable of properly managing their servants. The difficulties of arranging proper courses in this work are not so great as they may seem at a distance, and the educational aside from the practical gain is the same as that derived from the shop-work of the boys. In the cooking, especially, there is a great advantage in that it takes the girls entirely away from the mental work and gives them a rest by changing the direction of thought. To my mind, the education of girls includes the work as well as study; and five years of teaching sewing and cooking, have but strengthened me in this direction.

As for the cost of starting classes in hand-work, I think that ways can be found to provide for the means. My department at the Kansas State Agricultural College expends less than fifty dollars a year; and this is an entire cost for teaching thirty girls. The first expense for the plant, including range, tables, china, etc., was but one hundred and fifty dollars.

We teach cooking to the girls during the winter term of the second year. All the work is done according to a schedule. On Monday, we cook a "faculty" dinner, and serve it at noon; and on Friday we prepare a lunch of sandwich, cake, and coffee, for all who wish it For the dinner, we collect twenty cents of each member of the faculty, and for the lunch tickets we charge ten cents. The tickets must be obtained a day beforehand. In this simple way we dispose of the prepared food, provide for those who have to stay at the college in the afternoon, on Monday and Friday, and meet the actual expenses of the department.

We also have a term of dairy work for which the farm department furnishes the necessary milk and illustrative apparatus. There has not been the least trouble in managing these classes during the last ten or twelve years. Of course, in a State institution many things can be done which cannot be done elsewhere.

Girls must learn to wait on others, either to become servants, or that which is harder still, to become mistresses.

Professor Potts, of the Toledo manual training school, agreed with Mrs. Kedzie that it was just as difficult to become a master as to become a servant, and that the girls are sadly deficient in matters pertaining to the household. In sewing a great deal might be done to make the work more healthful. He spoke of the necessity of confronting this second question in industrial education: that of providing for the girls. We have an arrangement at Toledo for teaching sixteen girls at a time; and the experiment at our institution in cooking has been an unbroken success. The parents are converted.

Professor Hatch, of Chicago, held that the great obstacle in the way of the successful introduction of sewing into the schools was the lack of knowledge of this art among the school-teachers. It is one of the darkest signs of the present, that so many daughters do not care to learn how to run the household. There is a prejudice against work among the young women of nearly every stratum of society which will be hard to overcome.

Professor J. D. Walters, of the Kansas State Agricultural College, spoke of the industrial education of girls, and more especially of the instruction in sewing in continental Europe. He said that such instruction had been given by some in the states of Germany and a number of cantons of Switzerland, for the last thirty years, and that it had been successful from the first. Two afternoons are given to sewing each week, under the care of the regular lady teacher, who usually has charge of the lower classes of the communal schools. Where male teachers are employed in ungraded schools, a practical seamstress is employed, but no one is permitted to teach without a certificate. It is self-evident that the normal schools give instruction in handwork to their lady pupils. Examinations are held at the close of each term. County exhibitions of such work are held occasionally. The instruction includes all kinds of handwork. Great stress is laid upon mending. Sometimes short courses are given at the end of the year in cooking and vegetable gardening. The arrangement is very popular, especially in the rural districts. I believe we can do as well as our neighbors on the other side of the Atlantic; and the way to do it is to begin with the normal school. Unless the teacher is fully in sympathy with manual labor, his instruction amounts to little,—it is charlatanry and mimicry. It is to a lack of sympathy with actual work that I ascribe the greater part of failures in industrial and agricultural schools.

Professor Parton, of Nebraska, spoke of the waste in the American kitchen, reading statistics in proof of his statement. Reducing the value of food consumed in different countries to bushels of wheat, Russia uses but nineteen bushels per inhabitant per year; France, twenty-three bushels; Germany, nearly as much; while the United States are credited with forty bushels. Certainly we are more in need of cooks than dress-makers. We do not know how to produce economic meals. I venture to say that a cook can earn as much or more than the best lady teacher.

Several speakers admitted that the American kitchen wasted a great deal, but held that at the same time the American was better fed than the European. Where food is cheap and all refuse matter goes to the pig-pen, waste on the table is not a complete loss.

Professor Leipziger emphasized the idea that only high-grade teachers should be entrusted with industrial education, and that the best teachers should be placed in charge of the lower classes. The normal school is the school in which to begin any reform. To teach drawing or manual work requires experts, and it is the business of the normal school to furnish these. I do not believe that, as has been stated here, boys and girls ought to receive the same manual training. There will ever be a radical difference in the life-work of the two sexes.

Some speaker having made the statement that the superiority of the German army was due to plainer and better cooked food, and to better physical training, drew out quite a discussion on the merits of material and intellectual food.

Professor Murch, of Ohio, stated that he believed in separate technical schools, but does not want to introduce manual work of any kind into the public schools, or have it taught at the expense of the State. The public school cannot afford to cater to the bread and butter question. It cannot do everything for the pupil; it is simply a supplement to home education.

Professor Rickoff maintained that the future of industrial education was very bright. Wherever we go we find the life of activity in work of this character, which is very encouraging. Why is it that the interest in this education is advancing? The world never moves backward. Aside from reasons of a more practical kind, there are many pedagogical reasons for the introduction of the new education. We require of our pupils more mind work than they can do, and cram them with more facts than they can comprehend, but we do not develop them symmetrically. In teaching a child we must meet it where its knowledge leaves off. In many directions we do not go far enough, in many too far. Industrial education will round out the course for both the boys and the girls. We need instruction of the eye, the hand and the mind—all.

Professor Brown warned against going too far. It is a serious question whether we can afford to change from the purely intellectual to the extremely practical; and sewing and cooking belong almost wholly to the sphere of the latter. We may have drifted too far away from the material, but there is danger lurking on the other side; let us go slow.

Dr. Thompson, of Indiana, thought that sewing and cooking might be introduced after the gap between the work of the kindergarten and the high-school shop had been filled. He spoke of the comparatively small cost of object teaching and object making. In modelling, for instance, a great deal can be done with such materials as soap, potatoes, and paraffine.

A general inquiry concerning the cost of manual training in public schools brought forth several statements, asserting that three cents per hour for material, and five to fifteen dollars for tools, per year, for each pupil, would more than cover the expense of high schools working in wood.

Discussion closed.

The secretary read a letter by Professor W. F. M. Goss, the secretary of the section for the year 1885–86, giving the reason for his absence at the session at Topeka, and explaining the disappearance of his report on "The Progress of Industrial Education in the United States."

President Ordway then appointed a committee, consisting of Miss Fay, Professor Leipziger, and Professor Rickoff, to report at the next session on "Manual Education connecting the Kindergarten with the Work Shop," which was elected.

The committee on nominations then reported as follows:—

President—Professor George T. Fairchild, of Manhattan, Kansas.

Vice-President—Professor H M. Leipziger, of New York.

Secretary—Professor R. S. Thompson, of Pennsylvania.

Meeting adjourned.

PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

ART DEPARTMENT.

ART DEPARTMENT.

MADISON ST. THEATER, July 13, 1887.

The meeting was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M., by the president of the department, Mr. Walter S. Perry, of Massachusetts, who delivered the annual address.

The secretary, Mrs. L. F. Pickins, being absent, on motion of L. L. Thompson, of Indiana, Mr. Frank Aborn, of Ohio, was chosen secretary *pro tem.*

In the absence of Mrs. Elizabeth F. Dimock, of Illinois, a paper prepared by her on "Drawing in Grammar and Primary Schools," was read by the assistant superintendent, Mrs. Ella F. Young, of Chicago, Ill.

An interesting exercise was next given in clay modelling by Miss Jennie MacWhorter, of Chicago.

Miss Sullivan being absent, an illustrative blackboard exercise was given to a class of ten children by Miss Holmes, of Chicago.

Miss A. E. Hill, of Minnesota, and Mr. Walter S. Goodnough, of Ohio, then read papers on "Drawing in Ungraded or Village Schools."

President Perry appointed the following committee on nominations:— Wm. M. Mason, of Pennsylvania, Henry T. Bagley, of Massachusetts, Harriet Magee, of Wisconsin.

Adjourned.

FRANK ABORN,
Secretary pro tem.

The second meeting of the Art Department was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M., by the president.

In the absence of the secretary, Mr. E. C. Colby, of Rochester, N. Y., was chosen secretary *pro tem.*

The committee on nominations presented the following report:—

President—Geo. H. Bartlett, principal of the Massachusetts normal art school, Boston, Mass.

Vice-President—Miss Josephine C. Locke, of St. Louis public schools.

Secretary—Prof. Eben Rose, Mechanics Institute, Rochester, N. Y.

On motion, the secretary was empowered to cast one ballot for the officers, and they were declared elected.

Mr. Caleb N. Harrison, of Milwaukee, Wis., read a paper on "Drawing in High Schools."

The president of the Department read a paper on the same subject.

These papers were then discussed by Wm. A. Mason, of Pennsylvania, and W. S. Goodnough, of Ohio.

A paper was read by Mrs. M. Louis Field, of the Framingham Normal School, Massachusetts, with sheets showing work in several grades.

A paper upon the same subject was presented by Miss Harriet C. Magee, of Oshkosh, Wis.

Mr. Geo. H. Bartlett, of Boston, Mass., offered the following resolutions and moved their adoption:—

Whereas, It has pleased Almighty God to remove by death Prof. Walter Smith, to whom is due the honor of being the pioneer in American art education, and of giving a lasting impetus in the direction of a rational system of industrial art; and,

Whereas, The present is the first meeting of the National Educational Association since his decease, be it

Resolved, That the Department of Art Education now assembled, hereby expresses its appreciative recognition of the great value of his work in this country, and of its moulding influence in the American public schools.

Resolved, That this Department tender its sincere and heartfelt sympathy to his family in their great loss, and

Resolved, That the secretary of this Department be instructed to forward a copy of these resolutions to the wife and family of the deceased.

The motion was seconded by Dr. A. A. Miner, of Boston, Prof. L. S. Thompson, of Iowa, and Chas. H. Ames, of Boston.

The resolutions were unanimously adopted.

Miss Josephine C. Locke presented a report on "Drawing in Normal Schools."

Mr. Walter S. Goodnough, of Columbus, Ohio, called the attention of the Art Department to the recent publication of the Report on Art Education, and to the volumes to follow, and offered the following resolution:

Resolved, 1st, That it is the opinion of the Art Department of the National Educational Association, in session at Chicago, that the Report on "Art and Industry: American Education in Fine and Industrial Art," prepared by Col. J. Edwards Clark, issued by the Bureau of Education, is a document of the greatest value to all interested in this subject, and is one of the most important public documents ever issued, being an encyclopedia of information on all that had been accomplished up to the date of its issue, and containing valuable papers on the economic, æsthetic, and educational value of the subject.

2d, That it is the unanimous voice of this Department that Volume I now out, which has already received world-wide attention, should receive the widest possible circulation, and should be in the hands of every public educator in the land.

3d, That the volumes to follow should be given to the public at the earliest possible date.

The resolution was seconded by Mr. W. F. Mason, of Philadelphia, and others, and unanimously adopted.

The following was also offered by Mr. Goodnough :—

Although drawing is growing in favor, it is not yet held in such esteem as we could desire. Mr. James McAlister, of Philadelphia, is well known for his early interest in this study and his intelligent advocacy of it. Therefore, be it

Resolved, That Mr. James McAlister, of Philadelphia, be requested to prepare for general publication a paper on the Study of Drawing in Public Schools, and that a committee be appointed to confer with him and attend to the publication of the paper.

The resolution was adopted, and Miss Josephine C. Locke, of St. Louis, appointed such committee.

The Department then adjourned.

E. C. COLBY,
Secretary pro tem.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

WALTER S. PERRY, WORCESTER, MASS.

You, who know the history of this movement in art education, and you who have been identified with it in its wonderful growth, must with me look with feelings of pride and satisfaction upon the position the art department now holds in the meetings of the National Association. You certainly cannot help comparing the exhibit of this department in the exhibition building with the first small exhibit held in Congress Hall, Saratoga, only six years ago, or even with that held at Madison, Wis., three years ago.

The time has come when nearly all recognize the three-fold division of our subject, and know that the plan of work cannot be complete unless we begin with the constructive feature as the basis of all the constructive, representative and decorative arts; and, knowing first the facts of form. the appearance and decoration of form must follow in a clear, logical manner, simple enough to be comprehended by the pupils of the several grades, but withal sufficiently objective and subjective to call into execution the pupils' powers of thought and imagination.

It is to this last point that I, for a few moments, call your attention. It has been most truly said that drawing in its highest significance is a means of thought expression. And there are four forms of expression: expression by doing or making; expression by drawing; expression by writing; expression by oral description.

Yet drawing is even now looked upon by some as though its only value in the school curriculum is to be found in the education of the eye and hand. Indeed this is of very high importance, but we are educating the child to be the best possible intellectual, moral, and self-supporting citizen. The mind is recognized as the controlling factor in all the exigencies of life. At the best, the child's school life is but short, and while taking an hour and a half a week, or six per cent. of the school time, to educate the hand and the eye, it certainly behooves us to make the best of the time, and educate the three at once. There can be no better way to educate the mind than through drawing properly taught. It is often said, "We all see to the extent of that which is within us," and, if the thing is not well formed and distinct in the mind, no skill of hand can produce anything more than automatic movements, registered by constant exercise in one direction, in the muscles of the arm; originality there can be none.

Our work must be based upon objects, not at a distance, but close at hand, even in the child's hands. In fact, to quote from Sulley, "It is now generally recognized that touch furnishes one of the readiest means in determining the shape of objects."

With what delight the children of five to eight years study, arrange, model in clay, and draw the primary geometrical forms. These studied as type forms, how keen become the powers of observation and perception, as the child moulds his apple, pear, leaf, and other natural forms. Would drawing the outline simply of the type form or natural form beget such interest, and call for the observation of all parts in general, and in detail? You, who have watched a class at work with clay, and have studied carefully the results, can feel no doubt in your minds in regard to the proper method of procedure from the study and modelling of solid concrete type forms, and natural objects based on these forms, to the drawing of their appearance and the principles of decoration as applied to constructed forms.

We have, as instructors, to study more than art, we have got to study the child, and understand how he arrives at positive and correct conclusions. We can't fill him up with facts, as we would pour water into a bottle. Our work is of a higher, nobler, and more educational character.

A gentleman said to me recently, "I employed a teacher of drawing, skilled to an unusual degree, but he is a failure. He cannot bring himself down to the understanding of a child. We must make a change."

We are now gathered here for a three days' convention. We are certainly here to learn all that we can. Meeting once a year is none too often to discuss, study, and observe this question, and its visible results. We all have something to learn this week. Some one else has thought out that which never occurred to us. Our way of teaching may be too narrow. Matters are moving rapidly. This exhibition compared with that at Madison, as has been stated, reveals great progress. It ought to serve as a warning, if we are the least inclined to believe only in our own work, and to admire only our own exhibit, that educational matters are moving forward with enormous strides. There may be ruts left behind large enough for even members of the art department to fall into.

There is certainly much work exhibited that can never stand the test in the long run. Work that has no educational principle to stand on must sometime topple over. Again, work produced at enormous labor from copies and designed simply to please the uneducated eye can make no appeal to the educated mind. Sooner or later it too must go. Let us visit every exhibit of drawings in the exhibition building, gain all the points we can, whether the work be higher or lower than ours, gain all that is good, and discard all that is bad, even though it, for the present, attracts attention. May this meeting be a stepping stone to higher and better educational work in the art department. Ladies and gentlemen, I thank you for the honor conferred upon me at the last meeting.

DRAWING IN PRIMARY AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

BY ELIZABETH F. DIMOCK, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

Drawing is now generally recognized as an important element of education; hence, the methods employed in its teaching and the amount of time which shall be devoted to it become questions of serious import, to the consideration of which educators will do well to give some of their time and best thought.

Meanwhile, the experiments of the past, the doubts and fears, are giving way to certainties. Obstacles have been overcome, and while many yet remain and new ones are constantly coming to the front, it is nevertheless true that experience is lighting the way into more settled paths. The present in contrast with the past, has something tangible to build upon. Much good has been wrought, some results achieved, and those who follow will use our ways and means as stepping-stones to still better and broader results. A good method in teaching is one that seeks the development of the observing and inventive faculties of the mind with that of its coadjutors, the eye and supple fingers, and as Spencer says "The question is not whether the child is producing good drawing; the question is whether it is developing its faculties." As the knowledge which a child brings with him to the school is mostly self-gained through observation and contact with surrounding objects, so if we would follow this natural self development and mental activity, the use of the objects must be continued, but with this difference, that now is attempted a systematic cultivation of the faculties under efficient direction and guidance. Under this new relation of teacher and pupil, concepts will be more rapidly generated, assimilated, and expressed; ideas with relation to objects and things, become intelligent and fixed; embalmed and laid away in the crypt of memory for use in the future.

Looking about for objects suited to our purpose, we find the geometric solids are the type forms upon which are based the highest architectural pile which man can devise. These objects are the words of our graphic language; their details the a b c. As in reading, so in drawing, we should use the word method, and place the individual solids in the hands of every pupil, for it is not enough that children simply see the forms the teacher is handling. True there is a spontaneous activity of the faculties while looking at the objects, but the muscular sense which aids materially the sense of the mental vision is inactive. Multiply by individual touch the sensations made by sight and the impressions become doubly intensified, more real and permanent. Each pupil records his own impressions, and one such recorded impression is worth a thousand made for him.

Who of us cannot recall the little mother, suddenly wondering where Johnnie, or Jamie, or Katie is, so still has the house grown in their prolonged absence?

The scissors missing from the work-basket; big brother's jack-knife from the table; to say nothing of Bridget's shovel or dustpan, arouse suspicions sufficient to issue a search warrant for the dear little culprits, who are only minding the oft repeated behest, "Go away and don't bother me!"

We observe in these little escapades the strong propensity children exhibit, to build, to make, to cut, or, if you please, to destroy; this tendency, duly encouraged and directed, develops not only the manipulative power, but also that of concentration, close observation, firmness, decision, perseverance through failure, love of accuracy, truthfulness, and courage in attacking difficulties,—all qualities necessary to the development of the perfect citizen. By handling objects is gained a knowledge of form through touch as well as sight. This is a necessary prerequisite to the good expression of form. Deepen these impressions by modelling in clay, by stick-laying, or tablet-laying, by cutting, and by making in paper or wood, and by so many varied ways do we multiply the manipulative skill, and give time for thoughts to become assimilated, which results in a more complete expression of form, both in shaping and the facility with which it is expressed by line. The great difficulties which have attended the teaching of the principles of representation and construction, in the crowded class-room, are, by the use of the individual models brought to a minimum, only half as much time as formerly being consumed in enunciating principles, leaving therefore more time for cultivating the power of seeing and drill.

By drill I do not mean the lifeless going over and over of the same figure until absolute perfection is attained. Such teaching is puerile and seeks immediate results, not growth and development.

I refer rather to those essentials of technic which tend to rapid and correct drawing; and the formation of such habits that the hand and arm will perform their functions automatically, even when the mind is somewhat distracted.

Position of body, drill in pencil-holding, and arm-movement are primarily for the attainment of desired results in drawing, but indirectly they aid to freer movement in writing, while graphic delineation in geography and history are greatly promoted by them. If we would lead the trembling hand in earlier years to pencil surrounding objects with confidence and feeling, there must be tentative processes and occular guesses in comparing proportions, distances, size, &c. Through all the several grades it is important that attention to pencil-holding and arm-movement be insisted upon as much as the regular lesson, for in no other way can be acquired a free arm-movement with confidence and facility in graphic expression. Present the object, study well its contour, analyze it, and, with the salient features clearly pointed out, insist upon free, rapid drawing. Banish erasers, and rulers may well keep them company, for their use begets slovenly habits and indecision.

In object drawing, make use of the blackboard, only to display before the class their own inaccuracies of judgment, and failures in sighting the form. Success in this subject depends very largely, upon how well the pupil is trained to think in his dictation lessons—lessons which develop wonderful powers of perception and self-reliance. The average time now given to drawing, about eighty minutes per week, is insufficient for pupils to apply by themselves the principles taught with the solids, hence home exercises are invaluable and should be encouraged. The pupil is here thrown entirely upon his own resources and his effort to picture what he sees requires individual attention and independent thinking. These home exercises are always a recreation, not an extra tax upon weary nature, for whether they be simply drawings or thoughts embodied in material form, with each effort there is an innate consciousness of victory, therefore pleasure is resultant. In the child is every possibility. Only among teachers do we hear the cants, and find the unbelievers. See to it, fellow-teachers, that the rising generation call you blessed for the inspiration given, and not cast reflections on what might have been, because " Teacher said 'I could n't,' so I never tried."

As yet, I do not see the way clear to the right teaching of that complex study, color; and not until the great body of teachers come to their chosen profession with some well-grounded knowledge of the subject, will it be possible to teach it in class-rooms numbering sixty or more pupils. Although I do not see the way clear, yet visions float through my mind, of all the grades engaged in modelling beautiful leaf forms and historic ornament. In this horoscope of the future, I see in the highest grades, more sketching from nature, and for the artistic gray line is substituted chiaroscuro with its beautiful gradations of values. These are possibilities; let us hope they will soon be realized by some enterprising, aggressive spirit.

DRAWING IN UNGRADED COUNTRY AND PARTIALLY GRADED VILLAGE SCHOOLS.—WHAT CAN BE ACCOMPLISHED AND HOW.

BY WALTER S. GOODNOUGH, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

More than two-thirds of the school children of the United States are in ungraded schools.

In this great country of ours, in which new cities spring up as if by the magician's wand, and the country boy of to-day is the city merchant or manufacturer of to-morrow, it is certainly our duty to provide, as far as possible, the same advantages for the country boy and girl as for their city cousins.

Within the last seventeen years, drawing has found a place as a regular study in nearly all the best city schools of the country.

Indeed a city of any size or prominence that does not provide for regular instruction in drawing is considered behind the times.

It has been advocated by nearly every leading educator in the country as being of such importance as to demand a place with reading, writing and arithmetic in all grades of our public schools.

Its importance has been demonstrated from many points of view, and either would justify it; but when all are considered the arguments cannot be overcome. Only he who has not investigated, and thus is not in a position to judge, is not a steadfast friend of the subject as now taught in the best schools of the country.

One has only to spend an hour in studying the exhibitions displayed in yonder hall, or inspect the schools of any one of a dozen cities I might name, to be convinced that

FORM STUDY AND DRAWING SHOULD BE DEMANDED IN ALL OUR SCHOOLS.

1. From the broadest educational standpoint. It develops the powers of observation, imagination, invention, and judgment as no other study in an elementary course can do. The hand, the eye, the mind is symmetrically trained.

It affords another mode of expression or language, common to all nationalities.

2. It becomes one of the greatest aids in studying language, numbers, geography, history, physiology, zoology, and all other sciences.

3. The study of drawing is to be desired from an æsthetic point o view. Should not those faculties of the mind be cultivated which enab us fully to appreciate the beauties of nature and art? Is it well to neglect the education of that higher and nobler part of our being which enables the person so educated to perceive hidden beauties and to receive pleasure where the less fortunate see nothing? What other study in the course does what drawing in its broadest sense does in this direction?

4. From an industrial standpoint alone drawing is of the greatest value to a large per cent. of our future men and women.

It is the alphabet of all instruction in manual training.

It gives the trained and accurate eye and hand, so necessary to the successful skilled mechanic.

Look at our furniture, our houses, our means of conveyance, machinery, tools, and utensils of all kinds. They were all made from drawings; construction drawings, we call them. Some draftsman, or foreman, or mechanic had to make accurate scale drawings, showing plans, elevations, sections, and details, giving completely the form, size, and construction, before the object could be made. Then, the workman had to work from these drawings, either independently, or with a foreman at his elbow.

Look at the decoration on all these objects, and on our carpets, paper hangings, printed fabrics, pottery, jewelry. Some one had to design all of this, and every day more of it and of a higher grade is demanded.

Consider the vast number of people, both in business and out, who wish to convey ideas, where words would fail, and hence need the power of sketching or making a pictorial view.

But enough. The man, who will but take the time to investigate, is easily convinced that there is no subject in the school course more far-reaching or valuable from almost any point of view than this, when rightly taught.

Nearly all have become satisfied that drawing is good for the city child, but is it not equally good for the country or village child? It is true there is but little manufacturing carried on in the country or village, but we have seen that the utilitarian argument is not the only one to be advanced. Considering this alone, however, can any one tell in what positions the country boys or girls of to-day will be ten years hence?

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Indeed, the country boy is in need of art education as much as his city friends, in some respects more; and as there is about twice as many of him, it is time his interests were looked after.

It is the exception for drawing to be taught in the schools to which he goes, though every state school commissioner of whom I have made inquiry is emphatic in his belief that to teach it therein is both desirable and possible.

DIFFICULTIES

not to be met with in the graded town or city school confront us.

1. The people of this class will oppose it for want of information. They must be educated to see the matter in its true light.

2. The teachers in most cases have no knowledge of the subject, and consequently no interest in it. They must be reached through normal schools, books, educational journals, but principally through county-institute instruction.

It must be remembered that all normal schools do not give the proper instruction, and only a very small per cent. of country teachers receive the advantages of any normal-school training at all.

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This want will be filled as demands are made. One publishing house already has something in press to be issued soon, which it is hoped will be found suitable for country schools.

4. Perhaps the greatest of all difficulties lies in the character of the schools themselves. In them from twenty to sixty pupils are under the care of one teacher, the average being thirty-five to forty. These range in age from six to twenty, and study from A B C to algebra, or most of the studies taken in our primary, grammar, and lower high-school grades.

Some of our grammar school teachers in the cities think they are crowded, but imagine one person trying every day to cover the work of ten grades of teachers.

In order to be able to fully appreciate the situation, and have the most accurate information possible, I sent out letters of inquiry to about twenty States, asking for courses of study; the average number of pupils in schools of pupils from six to eight years of age, eight to ten, ten to twelve, twelve to fourteen, fourteen to sixteen, sixteen to twenty; th number of daily recitations; whether drawing was taught or not; if s what books or materials were used; if it was deemed desirable and possib that it be taught, what were the special difficulties to be overcome; and i drawing was a usual subject of instruction in the county institutes. I found the number of daily recitations was from twenty to forty, twenty-five being a fair average.

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It will be noticed that all of these studies occur every day. One recitation a week could be taken from one of the reading classes and one from writing to be given to drawing. Instruction in drawing wil necessarily help the penmanship, and experience in the city schools proves that two recitations a week may be taken from writing and given to drawing and as much be accomplished in the former, while the latter is clear gain. In a school of forty pupils there will be, according to my averages, about eight pupils from six to eight years of age, nine from eight to ten years, ten from ten to twelve, seven from twelve to fourteen, five from fourteen to sixteen, and one from sixteen to twenty, the majority being but ten to twelve years of age. This varies with locality and time of year. In winter there are more older pupils than in summer. In the great majority of cases, the reports I received show that drawing is not taught in these schools, though most of those answering thought it possible and desirable that it should be. I have already enumerated the principal difficulties in the way of its general introduction. It was also reported that drawing was not a usual subject of instruction in the county institutes, in some seldom or never, and that when on the programme the instruction was not always of such a practical nature that teachers could apply it directly in their schools.

THE FIRST QUESTION

to be solved in this problem is, What ought to be attempted in drawing in the ungraded schools, and how can the best results be secured?

I believe that the younger pupils should commence with form study and clay modelling, just as in city schools, though less ground can be covered; and that the three lines of instruction carried out in city schools—construction, representation, decoration—should be taken in condensed form.

The construction work should include lessons with the objects, tablets, sticks, etc., developing the plain geometrical forms, planes, and lines; drawing these shapes, front, top, bottom, side, and sectional views of the geometrical and common objects; and finally a scale drawing of a simple shed, barn, or house. To apply his knowledge, the pupil should make some of the objects from his own drawings.

The second line of work is the representation of the geometrical solids, tablets, and sticks, by modelling in clay, cutting from paper, and pictorial drawing.

The first work from objects would show but two dimensions, as the front of a slate, envelope, etc. Then objects of three dimensions, and the governing perspective principles may be considered, as cylindrical, conical, and rectilinear forms, the latter showing two and then three faces, the principles to be derived from geometric solids, then applied in common objects. Finally, the pupil should represent pictorially the wood-shed, school-house, barn, etc.

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To educate the color sense and taste, after the design has been arranged with the geometric tablets, the same forms may be cut out of different colored papers and arranged again in color. Next the pupil should draw some of his designs thus arranged, and vary them by suitable changes. Conventionalization of foliage and its use in design would be the next step, the principles being taught meanwhile, as they are developed or occur in the work. Finally, a design may be made for an ornamental fence, flower bed, or toilet set.

A teacher well trained in the above course would, perhaps, be able to teach in such a school, most of the above without drawing books, using blank paper or books and blackboard, if provided with the requisite objects, models, etc., cutting up a few drawing-books and distributing the pages as required, when copies are needed.

As we seldom find such teachers in these schools, and as pupils could do little or nothing without the teacher, this method would in most cases be useless, or at best a very extravagant expenditure of the small amount of time at command. Suitably prepared books, presenting the above in condensed form, would be a necessity. Further, they should contain as full directions as possible for the guidance of the pupil, who would be left to himself to study out his work to a far greater extent than in graded schools. Very full and complete manuals for the instruction and guidance of the teacher would also be necessary.

The course ought to be comprised in not over four drawing-books, the youngest pupils working on slates. Such books might also be made suitable for normal schools, where the time available for instruction in drawing is also short, and condensation proportionately necessary.

In graded schools we expect one and a half to two hours a week for drawing. In ungraded schools one hour would probably be all that could be obtained.

A teacher could not give the necessary different kinds of instruction to pupils from six to twenty years of age in the same class; neither could there be as many classes as books, for want of time.

Probably form study and clay modelling with the youngest pupils would have to be carried on at the same time, and the drawing with the rest of the class at another, though it might be possible to handle them both at once.

The first year, there would be fewer classes, as all would do more or less elementary work.

The recitation period ought not to be less than thirty minutes.

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About the same course and books just mentioned would answer for partially graded village schools, where the teacher has but two to four grades, and but fifteen to twenty recitations daily.

Those with only two grades would be able to take additional supplementary work on blank pages, paper, or blackboard, provision for which should be made in the manuals.

THE NEXT QUESTION

is, How are these teachers to be prepared to teach this course? I reply, We must depend primarily on the normal schools.

In order to judge whether they are already doing the kind of work we want, considerable time has been spent in investigation in that direction.

I find there are one hundred and thirty-one public normal schools in the United States. Drawing is not taught in eight of them, and twelve of them do not report. There are no models in forty-six, and seventeen are silent on this point. In response to a circular letter, most schools report having a special teacher of drawing, and the average time given is three and three-quarters hours a week, in three-quarter-hour lessons, one to two years.

In most cases there is no attempt made to familiarize pupils with the various systems of drawing or sets of books published, or to indicate how they may be adapted to various classes of schools. The majority of schools report no attempt to lay out courses of study, and teach pupils what to give in drawing in the various classes of schools, as ungraded country, partially graded village, or graded city schools. In many normal schools little or no time is devoted to construction drawing, mechanical perspective or perspective theory too often taking the place of free-hand drawing from objects. Clay modelling and elementary form study have yet to find a place in many of them. A considerable number, however, are doing good, intelligent work; but even were they all doing perfectly, most of their graduates find places readily in town and city schools, and the whole number of them is but a drop in the bucket. There are 319,549 teachers in the United States according to the last report of the bureau of education, and 25,000 pupils in normal schools.

From the New York State report I learn that three to four thousand teachers of that State drop out every year, people with no experience filling their places.

Pennsylvania has more normal schools than any other State in the Union; but her eleven schools with four thousand seven hundred students equal only about one-sixth of the number of teachers in the State, and do not much more than replace the number who annually cease teaching. It must be remembered, also, that many normal students, for various reasons, do not complete their course nor teach.

Books and educational journals will be a valuable assistance in the preparation of teachers for work in drawing in country schools, as well as wisely applied normal training, but

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must be the principal means of reaching the two hundred thousand or more teachers in these schools.

Fortunately most of the States provide by law for such institutes in each county, the average length being five days; though in Kansas they are twenty days; in Iowa, ten to twenty days; in Ohio, one to six weeks; and in several States they are often two weeks in length.

These institutes are short normal school courses, and perhaps fifty to seventy-five per cent. of the teachers of the county attend; in States having county superintendents a larger proportion. Local or foreign talent is engaged, often the very best obtainable being sought.

The teachers attending are from all grades of schools, country, village, and town, and the number ranges from fifty to two or three hundred, or more.

In Pennsylvania the attendance is very large, one institute last year enrolling nearly eight hundred during the five days. In Ohio one hundred and seventy-five is about the average, and in Indiana one hundred and fifty.

These are rather large classes to attempt much individual instruction with, yet that is what is needed as far as possible.

If the clay modeling or stick laying cannot be done by all, take twenty-five as a sample class.

In these institutes each instructor is allowed one to three hours a day, according to the number of instructors and the importance of his subject. As all of the same teachers will not be present the following year, and as the same instructor may not be reengaged, it follows that his work must be as complete as possible in each institute; though it would be better if he could plan the course to be completed in three or four successive years, thus making quite thorough work possible.

I believe it possible for a thoroughly trained specialist, who understands his subject and all the conditions controlling this class of work and such schools, to carry on the drawing of several counties in this manner, reaching them through their annual institutes during the summer months. If most of the institutes were not held during the summer months, but were scattered through the year, two or three good men could carry on the instruction in drawing of a whole State, instructing the teachers in the institutes and directing and inspecting the school-room work by occasional visits.

I have carried on successfully all the required work of graded city schools of places having from twelve to sixty teachers, by ten monthly visits of one day each to instruct the teachers, each class getting thirty hours' instruction in the year.

A full year's work for the pupils could be given to the teachers at an institute of two weeks' duration, and in three to four institutes in successive years they could be quite thoroughly trained.

INSTITUTE COURSE.

In an institute of five days, two lessons a day of one hour each, I would divide my time as follows:—

1. Preliminary remarks on the character and value of the study; elementary ideas of form developed by handling objects and forming them of clay; use, preparation, and care of clay.
2. Handling of pencil. Practice in various positions for drawing different kinds of lines, straight and curved; sketching, brightening, erasing.
3. Methods of giving lessons from objects, blackboard, copy, dictation, designing; arranging sticks and tablets; cutting, analysis of form.
4. Construction: top, front, and end views; sections, dimensions; geometrical solids used. Freehand.
5. Construction: working drawings to scale; geometrical or common objects used. Rule and compass.
6. Representation: measuring in space. Drawing objects of two dimensions. Elementary principles. The circle, cylinder, cone.
7. Representation: principles governing straight-lined objects. Cube, rectangular prism, triangular prism, pyramid.
8. Decoration: elementary ideas and principles. Simple variations. Abstract lines and forms used.

9. Decoration: conventionalism. Natural foliage as material. Modes of arrangement.

10. Résumé. Outline the work for each grade, village, and city school. Character of results; care of material.

If I expected to return to the institute of a given county two or three years in succession, I would not try to cover all of the above ground the first year, but do less more thoroughly. I believe it is our duty to look after the great mass of children in country and village, and lead the authorities in our respective States to see that here is a means of reaching them, as effective, perhaps, as any that can be named, if the care is taken to engage the services only of those qualified for this special work.

3. The study of drawing is to be desired from an æsthetic point of view. Should not those faculties of the mind be cultivated which enable us fully to appreciate the beauties of nature and art? Is it well to neglect the education of that higher and nobler part of our being which enables the person so educated to perceive hidden beauties and to receive pleasure where the less fortunate see nothing? What other study in the course does what drawing in its broadest sense does in this direction?

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In these institutes each instructor is allowed one to three hours a day, clay first; and I may say here, that we have had considerable work do in clay the past year, but nearly all of it was accidently destroyed by careless expressman, when taking it to the pottery to be fired.

After this work comes the study of color—not painting as so ma pupils delight to characterize it—but color for the sake of the study harmony of color and its application in historic ornament and origin design; and, also, as a further medium for rendering groups of still li in light and shade, with harmonizing backgrounds.

Let us review somewhat this work in freehand drawing. In my ow course each pupil first draws a group of models in pencil outline, as a review of the grammar school model drawing; then he begins to learn th nature of the surface of the paper, and how it is to be treated to produ transparency. In doing this, he shades a cube, using only three sm pieces of chamois skin, one of which is kept quite clean, one is of a medium tint with the crayon evenly spread and rubbed into the surfa while a third piece is quite dark with crayon. He shades the cube and then the cylinder, followed by the sphere or the two combined.

In this work he learns the use of the stump in combination with th chamois skin and also the use of a long, narrow eraser, sharpened to a very long, flexible point. An eraser, it may be said, is never to be use as an eraser, properly speaking, but as a medium with which to rende any part or spot transparent which may accidently have been rendered otherwise. In the shading of the cylinder and sphere, it is very helpful to the pupil to understand what we individually happen to call the scale of color, that is, tracing the gradation of shade from the lightest up to eight, and back to the proper number for the reflected light.

Following this, as has been stated, the pupil shades groups of objects and several plaster casts, makes a design to illustrate light and shade in the round; studies color, working out sheets illustrating harmony of color. historic ornament, original design in color, the painting of the natural plant for purposes of applied design; and then groups of still life in light and shade, but with color as the medium.

I have not so far referred to the mechanical drawing, as Mr. Harrison has covered that part of the subject. I may say, however, that it receives a great deal of attention, the pupils upon entrance to the high school beginning with simple machine models, advancing to more difficult combinations, as valves, &c., surface developments, and architectural work The pupil finally makes a free hand sketch of some machine, as a lathe, with all measurements indicated, from which he makes a complete set of drawings.

There may have come to your mind the thought that too much stress in this paper has been laid upon the way of doing the work. But I have otherwise covered the subject once, and I know it is often said that all we are to do is to teach the pupils how to see and never mind the method of gaining the result. But many a pupil is hindered from giving expression to what he has seen because he has not discovered an economical method of expression. He works and works on a drawing, all the time making it look worse, and realizing it; but, not knowing the reason, he becomes dissatisfied and discouraged.

Last year I had the best work from the first year classes I have ever had. Every morning of drawing the pupils were given a short class exercise of a very few minutes on the use of materials, how to look at their objects, and how to correct their drawings; and for six months scarcely any individual work was done. As I have said, the work was the best I have ever had, and yet, fully twenty-five to thirty pupils were in the room every three-quarters of an hour in the beginners' class alone, besides pupils studying mechanical drawing, and light and shade, and color, to the number of twenty-five to forty more.

The time is short, and I make my paper brief, preferring that others to follow shall take the greater part of the time, or that it may be given to discussion.

DRAWING IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

M. LOUISE FIELD, MASSACHUSETTS.

"There is such a choice of difficulties that I am myself at a loss how to determine," wrote General Wolfe to Mr. Pitt, more than a century ago. This is not unlike my own dilemma among the many phases of drawing in the normal school, upon which I might dwell to-day. A few years since there was hardly an alternative; but the time is fast passing when it seems necessary to plead for a recognition of this subject as part of a public school curriculum. For long years the public stood with its finger upon the pulse of this alleged intruder, fearful lest it bring disease and disorder; it has now passed the quarantine stage; it is found to be not only safe, but salutary; no longer an alien, it is fast becoming an ally; once a question of "to be, or not to be," it is now largely a question of "how to be at its best."

This brings us directly to the door of the normal school, where, furnishing as it does the teachers for our schools in increasing numbers each year, the problem must ever be finding, or failing in its solution. Does not the spirit of honest inquiry and strong endeavor here at work predict the former?

Under the study of a language we may include the thought or the form of its expression, or both. This is no less true of drawing. It is with reference to that which is expressed, rather than the expression, so far as they can be separated, of which I wish more especially to speak.

Drawing being essentially the "language of form" has, in its widest sense, the whole visible world as its world. In the public schools, we hear much said of "drawing in relation to other subjects," implying that certain phases of form have been set apart for drawing proper. We all know the process of selection has been going on. What unquestionably remains, through "the survival of the fittest," hardly need be stated. We may recognize the facts of some complicated cathedral; we must recognize those of the cube; we are at liberty to enjoy the most pleasing pictures, but not at liberty to neglect the perspective of a simple prism; nothing excludes us from a knowledge of the most complex ornament; we include among the necessaries, a knowledge and practice of the elementary principles of decorative design.

As regards drawing in the normal school, I shall assume we are agreed that a part, if not the whole duty of its special teacher, lies in the selection of these essential features of a public school course, and their presentation according to the best methods; first by the teacher; second, by the pupils, in practice teaching, involving, as this must, the educational and practical philosophy underlying the same.

If by chance we should disagree in some points, at least we should all decide to set out with the sphere. I invite you to my class-room, supposing myself to spend the brief time alloted a lesson, in leading my pupils to see how this form should be observed, and ideas of the same variously expressed.

The pupils pass on to Miss B——, than whom, no more eloquent advocate of objective teaching can be found; and who, therefore, does not encourage such abstractions as "three and three are six," "four and two are six," but insists that John and James have visible demonstration that "three spheres and three spheres are six spheres," that "four marbles and two marbles are six marbles."

Miss C—— whose "soul-proud science" has "taught to stray far as the solar walk or milky way," compelled this morning to descend from the etherial to the material sphere, resorts to that prehistoric expedient, an orange, as suggesting a means of making clear to the little ones, the form of the earth upon which they live.

Miss C—— has left rare exotics for a "simple wayside flower," whose sphere-like fruit, she is trying to show, may be made a perfect wonderland for the children.

I will not lead you through more class-rooms to-day. But, I hear some one ask, "What is the story behind the glory?" Because number, botany, and so on deal with concrete form, am I then to make exhaustive illustrated analyses of these subjects? By no means. Just as the teachers of these departments cannot systematically teach form and its expression, but utilize what will bear on their respective subjects, so I borrow from them only so much as will make my own subject more suggestive, and lead the pupils to discover something common to all; that they shall not feel a sphere is one thing in my class, and quite another matter, with entirely different properties, when embodied in some animal form, in an adjoining class; that a leaf analyzed in studying botany loses its identity when it crosses the threshold of the drawing-room; and that a freedom of movement desirable in sketching an ellipse ceases to be legitimate when indicating the contour of this same elliptical-shaped leaf. In other words, that they shall see, while

> "None resembleth another, yet all
> Their forms have a likeness."

The advantage of this, I hold to be two-fold. First, it is personally educative; begetting that habit of mind which sees nothing as an isolated fact, but as part of a great whole, and which ever reaches out through the variety of truths, up to the unity of truth. Second, it is professionally economic. Our pupils have an advantage over us, inasmuch as they, being responsible for all subjects taught, can by judicious planning make the lessons of a given session bear in a specific direction, so that the element of similarity, which was casual on that day in school, shall to some extent be customary in their practice. And this is not confined to the first years of school work. The cone, whose appearance I indicate before recess, becomes the mountain peak of the later morning; and it is that of which I find the solid contents in the afternoon.

I do not pose here in the role of an educational sphinx, holding the solution to riddles by which so many "a noble mind is here o'erthrown," but would not this co-operative method of teaching, while broadening these respective lines of work by condensing them, be much of time saved? The demands in every direction are so great that teachers sit groaning amid the confusion of profusion. In this pressure, it seems there must be established a mutual aid society, among what are no longer the three R's. The recent series of arithmetics by Professor Rickoff, so suggestive in these directions, should be in the hands of every teacher.

I have spoken of drawing as largely recognized in the public school course of to-day; and yet the inequality, inadequacy, and oftentimes entire lack of preparation, on the part of those entering the normal school, cannot be overlooked, but demands serious consideration. It seems to me, however, that our pupils, thinking along these lines suggested, will as they go forth discover and even create opportunities for introducing our special work, which, otherwise would be thus much crowded out, particularly in ungraded schools, where, as already stated on this platform, the most serious phase of the problem exists, and that we should soon reap the good results of our sowing.

Are you reminded of the philosopher who, when told by the chemist, "But the chemical facts, my dear sir, are precisely the reverse of what you suppose," replied, "Have the goodness to tell me what they are, that I may explain them on my system"? I should try to reconcile all to my specialty, another to his; he is the wise one who administers with equal justice to each.

The work we can do is, of course, but roughly suggestive. It is no waste of time, however, when a prism or simple object is to be constructed, if the solid contents are stated in connection with the working drawing, rather than a third dimension, thus giving incidentally a lesson in arithmetic, illustrated in concrete form by completed model. A few weeks since I asked for cylinders from a class, leading them to see how they might be made to illustrate the full or scale measures of capacity, which, with "prophetic eye" as to future demand and supply in the school-room they were glad to construe as meaning metric measures. The result was many well-constructed liters and deciliters, which, in spite of their names, just as clearly illustrated the rules of perspective. I need not tell you how these objects and their use suggested the appropriate accompaniment of a basket, like the measures constructed of paper, and into which as into the former, the element of color might have entered, thus furnishing as material for another lesson, a simple group, pleasing in composition and correct in sentiment. It is no sacrilege that the ten units repeated in the pentagon in the morning be used later as an illustration of decimals. If I divide a square into nine smaller squares, cutting from these a flight of steps, I have none the less effectively trisected the sides of the square, because I chose to attach the height and width of each step to the drawing, placing the sum of these distances against the side which represents them, thus giving a number lesson, as well as a practical lesson, in adding measurements to a working drawing.

Of the various ways in which the written or spoken language may utilize form as subject matter it is hardly necessary to speak. I recently collected a number of fans, illustrating the circle, ellipse, oval, and the like, which suggested a delightful review of these geometric figures in connection with the material, color, and use of the objects which afterward might easily be constructed. Historic ornament offers a wide scope to language, and let us not forget that the stories of its symbolism may be made most familiar to the young student whose keen imagination is not slow to see. "The dashing waves beat high" through his simple little zigzag border of splints, and who will long remember the story of its use and meaning among the people with whom Joseph lived. These same splints may be made strongly to suggest animal and plant forms of which the latter can also be so well expressed, both as to contour and color, by the tablets so largely in use, and so easily cut by deft little fingers, supplementing as these may, but not supplanting the use of the pigment.

I hear some one ask if anything be done in illustrative work, bearing more in the direction of pictorial art. In my own work, I try so far as limited time will allow to emphasize the embodiment of the various type forms in familiar objects. A cube in parallel perspective may, by a few lines, be transformed into a fire-place; with a cat, even of doubtful anatomy, upon the hearth rug, and a stocking pinned to the mantel, we have the illustration for a Christmas story. A simple basket was constructed of paper and drawn in the class a short time since; imagining the appearance of its semi-circular handles several times repeated, the arches of a bridge were suggested, of which the pupils were asked to work out a little sketch. Above the directly practical use that might be made of such drawings, is the advantage realized through the application of those principles of perspective gained by observation. As works of art they have little value; the value of the intellectual processes by which they are achieved rank in kind, not in degree, with those which produced the works of the masters. In connection with these common solids, there is one of the teacher's opportunities to open up a world of beauty in the architectual forms based upon them, converting a simple plinth into a coliseum, and a commonplace prism into Giotto's world-famous tower, a usage which is practicable in the ordinary school-room, and should certainly prove practical as familiarity with the simplicity and elegant proportions of such structures could not fail to create a distaste for much of the frivolous elaborations of modern construction.

We have thus far dealt mainly with subject matter. Our proposition concerning normal schools included methods, which I define to be in the best sense, the intelligent adjustment of means to an end. Drawing is the means; the education of the child the end. We speak of this child as a "trinity of mental, moral, and physical forces." We claim that drawing has an office to perform for each. It cannot be denied that it does "give a boy accurate perceptions," and "teach him the difference between similar and same," and, not resting here, that it touches him at every point of his mental activity. The eye and hand are not only incidentally but specifically trained. Tennyson wrote:

"Ah, God, for a man with heart, head, hand,
Like some of the simple great ones gone,
For ever and ever by."

Is it possible that our methods are shaping themselves too exclusively in given directions, and that in the culture of the head and hand we are forgetting the heart? Let it ever be the "untutored mind" which

"Sees God in clouds, or hears Him in the wind."

All this does not imply a chair of moral philosophy as an adjunct to our special department. But beyond that resultant moral power of which intellectual discrimination is so important a factor, and toward which manual training may contribute, disciplining the will to prompt and effectual action, directing the individual from himself outward toward his fellows, with whom he realizes a completer brotherhood, when with them he has learned what it may mean to "live by the sweat of his brow," to say nothing of that negative good which follows, when opportunity, if not desire to do wrong, is cut off, until desire dies from famine,—beyond all this, I say, there should be a distinct moral purpose tempering and transforming our work.

In touching upon methods, we are brought directly to the teacher who is, to their dead form, as the animating soul to the body. "I do not care what you study, but who is your teacher?" says Emerson. Time is too short for platitudes; but let us remember that we teach what we are.

whether intellectually or morally. While suggesting a few familiar directions in which our chosen work might legitimately open up, I seemed to hear some one say:

> "The age is gone o'er,
> When a man may in all things be all."

There is nothing which can justify us in neglecting the affairs of our own house, but in proportion as we are careful to define our specific ground we can and must be catholic toward what lies outside. As specialists, we should take heed that we are "not lovers of a part of wisdom, but of the whole, who have a taste for every kind of knowledge, and are curious to learn and are never satisfied." "Nothing is so ridiculous," says Macauley, "as England in one of her periodic fits of morality." Do we not sometimes feel this to be true of ourselves, on occasions like these? But is not the ridiculousness in either case from the absence of practice rather than the presence of theory? If so, it lies with us to transform the ridiculous into the wholesomeness of life. Whether toiling among New England hills, so suggestive of the doubts and difficulties by which we are often hedged in, or on these spreading prairies of the West, typical of our far-reaching opportunities, let us

> "Keep our heads erect; our aims sublime."

DRAWING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

HARRIET CECIL MAGEE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, OSHKOSH, WIS.

I. Object, and how obtained.

1. Conviction of and faith in the utility of drawing.

"Education is nine parts inspiration and one part drill," says Munger in "Education and Social Progress."—*Century Magazine, June*, 1887.

The truth of this proposition we affirm of drawing in normal schools. The teacher who would use the nine parts must inspire his pupils by the power of his own convictions. This he cannot do unless he have at the outset a mighty faith in the utility of the subject matter he attempts to teach. It is a fact that the young men and women in the normal schools of Wisconsin and sister States come to us with no such convictions with regard to the utility of drawing.

The nineteenth century bows before the shrine of utility. The United States as a nation is fully abreast of the age in this respect, and the western States,—especially the beginning of the great West, with no rugged mountain scenery to stimulate the imagination and lift the mind above the level of its prairies, with no historical surroundings to awaken a spirit of patriotic emulation, with its wide expanse of territory ready to yield its treasures to the first seeker, with its iron present and silver future,—is intensely practical. Hence the young westerner, the exponent of his century and nation, comes into our normal schools with the feeling, as Prof. Walter Smith says, "that the actual functions of education are to prepare a human being to get along in this world without any reference to idealties, but with direct bearing upon his faculty at all times to pay a hundred cents to the dollar in discharge of his just obligations."

The object of the teacher then at the very outset is to show him that his lack of faith in the utility of the subject is the greatest hindrance to his success. And by calling for what he already knows of home industries, he is led to see what an important factor a knowledge of drawing is in the education of the artisan. To his own information as to the use of drawing in home industries a few facts may be added. He is shown in how many instances the skilled workmen must be drawn from European countries. That especially in our western manufacturing establishments the foremen are English or German. Why this is so is answered by the fact that "European governments now lay greater stress upon drawing than upon any other study. In Europe drawing may be said to constitute a fourth part of all the education the artisan receives. In the German trade schools about one half the time is devoted to drawing. This evidence places it beyond question that, in Europe, the welfare of the individual artisan, of manufacturing establishments, of whole communities even, may be justly attributed to instruction in drawing." Why then, we ask these young people, may not drawing render to American industries services equally valuable?

2. A thorough knowledge of principles.

A thorough knowledge of principles is both necessary and desirable, No teacher can teach successfully any branch the elements of which he has not the mastery. And as a knowledge of principles is the basis of all normal work, it is equally important in the subject of drawing. No amount of conviction will wholly compensate for a lack of grounding in the elements. Geometry has long been considered the basis of drawing, and without a clear knowledge of the principles of geometric forms, one goes on to the completion of a structure built upon sand, whose foundations are unstable and insecure.

3. Skill to illustrate these principles.

Manual skill, or the mere technique of drawing, we place last in the scale as of the least importance to the student teacher.

On the first of these points, conviction of and faith in the utility of drawing, we have dwelt to much greater length than upon the second and third,—knowledge of principles, and skill to illustrate them. We have done so because it seems to us a matter of much greater moment that one should know why he teaches than how he teaches. If he fully realizes the necessity for teaching a subject, the strength of his convictions will give power and skill in its presentation.

There is another feature of normal drawing which we consider of great importance; that is

II. The Ability to Use Drawing as an Instrument of Expression in Teaching Other Branches.

Art has been well defined as "the culminating expression of a nation's civilization," while the end and aim of culture may be considered as the perfected expression of our best. Therefore every weapon of expression is of the greatest value. The tongue and the pen have long been given the first place in the intellectual arsenal; but the time has come when a new weapon flashes out whose blade is a thousand edged and felt wherever visible; the only weapon of expression in universal use.

When a piece of intellectual work is taken up, men and women have learned to look at it with the analytic eye of the soul (*psyche*). But when those things are taken up which call for the searching glance of the natural eye, then it is that so many fail. The psychical eye must blend its beams with that of the physical in order to produce the truly intelligent observer. Observation, perception, conception, expression is the natural order; and when the student teacher has acquired habits of intelligent observation, quick perception, and clear conception, the next assistance we can give him is to offer him as many tools for his mental workshop as it is possible for him to use. At the beginning he finds himself with but one instrument of expression, language with its two edges, speech which pierces the mind through the organ of hearing, and written language, a system of arbitrary symbols, entering the mind through the eye. But this blade can only convey an impression to a mind already acquainted with the peculiar metal of which it is made, as an Englishman knowing no language but his own can be communicated with in no language but English. But give him the simplest elements of an art education, and you at once place in his hand another instrument by means of which he embodies his thought, either in tangible form so that one blind and deaf may receive his thought as correctly as he who possesses sight and hearing; or, by a vivid representation of his conceptions by means of lines on a plane surface he presents his idea in the only universal language.

If our normal schools place this instrument in the hands of their students, the public will soon see that the young teacher is equipped with a new language, by whose aid he simplifies many difficult points, and elucidates many dim obscurities in those branches of study, hitherto wholly taught by means of spoken or written language. Thus he opens a new window to the child's mind through which greater light is thrown upon his inner consciousness, and the result is that, in that young mind, the otherwise bare and lifeless subject is clothed and vivified, and the abstract is given "a local habitation and a name."

Just here comes the question, How may the teacher of drawing in the normal school give such instruction in the limited time at his disposal as to place this instrument in the hands of the student teacher ready for use?

This can be done by means of model lessons given by each student to the class, treating the class as children.

Later on in the course when these students take up practice work in the model departments, they never hesitate to illustrate their work, and in the second primary and grammar grades they are often assisted by the children in their classes. These children having had regular instruction in drawing are well prepared to cooperate.

III. Difficulties in the Way, and How to Overcome Them.

1. Lack of faith in the utility of the subject.

The first and greatest difficulty in the path of him who would solve the problem of drawing in normal schools we have already mentioned, viz.:

Lack of conviction and faith in the subject. We have also tried to indicate how this may be overcome.

2. Preconceived idea that only the specially gifted can draw.

The second difficulty is the preconceived idea that only the specially gifted can learn to draw. Young men and women come to me with that helpless air of despondency and say:

"I feel that what you say of the utility of drawing is true, and that a knowledge of the subject is both necessary and desirable to the teacher, but I have no talent in that direction. I could never draw anything."

"Can you write?" I ask.

"O, yes."

"Then you can certainly learn to draw," I reply, "for the mere technique of drawing is more easily acquired than that of penmanship. In drawing you have only two symbols—the straight and the curved line—to master. In penmanship you have twenty-six. Then again, the youngest children have the outlines of the objects they see in their minds, and often without urging seek to give their perceptions expression by means of irregularly drawn figures which they triumphantly tell you are horses, dogs, or men. Should the child be so fortunate as to choose a simple subject, whose outline and proportions his little mind readily seizes upon and the little hand can easily reproduce, admiring parents and friends shout applause, and think that the child shows unmistakable indications of genius. Thus encouraged he is stimulated to greater effort, his observation increases, his perception develops, and their accompanying faculties are led out to expression. Another child is less fortunate in his choice of subject, and the outline he places upon slate or paper is not readily recognized. Hence he meets with no encouragement, rather the reverse. His little effort is ridiculed, and, if a sensitive child, his feelings are wounded, and he throws down his pencil in tears, feeling that what mamma says is true, "Poor Johnny cannot draw. Brother Willie has all the talent in the family." Now, in nine cases out of ten, poor Johnny's effort at representation showed quite as much talent as did that of Willie, who was only more fortunate in his choice of subject.

Then we refer our doubtful student to Wm. Walker's "Hand-Book of Drawing," pages 10, 11, where the author says: "A very young child first sees things not as they really are, but as they appear (on the exquisite little reflector, the eye), unconscious that they often are actually quite different. As the child grows he gradually learns the true or actual shapes of things, and if, whilst very young, he does not draw things, he will lose what is called the 'innocence of the eye,' so that when he is older and attempts to draw things from nature, he will have considerable difficulty in seeing retiring forms correctly, and will have to use the rules of perspective; thus to learn back again, as it were, to the simplicity and truth of child-sight.

"There are many intelligent persons who cannot draw the top of a t or of a tumbler, or a book correctly. In this case the mind (with knowledge of actual shape) interferes with the image of the retina. I a fact that, supposing a young child could hold and guide the pe sufficiently well, he would draw solid forms in perspective more corre than an upgrown person, and for this reason that he sees more innocen or truly."

It is thus only by patient exposition and experiment that the teac of drawing in normal schools induces the students under his charge take up the subject naturally and hopefully, and learn back to the s plicity and truth of child-sight.

3. False standards of beauty.

Another difficulty in the student's mind is his false standard of beau Fine lines and delicate shading are to him the only essential element a beautiful drawing. Goethe's definition of beauty, "robed truth," h never risen above his mental horizon, which on the sphere of art has ne widened beyond the radius of the lead pencil. As a result we find th who have kept something of their innocent child-sight are so cramp and "finnicky" in their methods of expression, that the first th the teacher must do is to establish the grand truism that art to b of any value must be the expression of truth in regard to for And further, that "beauty has a commercial value almost unlimit and that the difference between good design and poor design," betwe truth as beauty and falsehood as ugliness "is the difference betwe success and failure in the markets of the world." And just as soon as h begins to look for truth as the chief element of beauty, he will begin gain in accuracy, boldness, and dexterity.

As the Master Artist engraved his image on the inner consciousness man; and man only fails in perfected character as he fails in reading th image rightly and expressing it to his brother, so it is with the natur eye. The image on the retina is true enough. The difficulty is for th mind to take a correct reading of that image, for what the mind kno the hand will execute. Drawing is more a matter of knowledge th of mere dexterity.

Then let every teacher of drawing make a deadly onslaught again these false standards of beauty, and place the truth before his pupils the foundation and corner-stone of excellence in this as in every depa ment of work. As teachers, we must ourselves guard against this stu narrowness of mental grasp and action. We ourselves must avoid los sight of the end in the enjoyment of the means, lest what Fergusson h truly said of the art of old Rome be said of our work in new Americ "Everywhere it exhibits traces of that haste to enjoy, which se incompatible with the correct elaboration of anything that is to be tr great."—*Fergusson's Hist. Arch. vol.* 1, *p.* 294.

4. Lack of boldness and dexterity.

After the teacher has gotten his pupils thoroughly embued with the importance of the educational and practical advantages of drawing; after he has rooted out the false notion that only the specially gifted can learn to draw easily and well, and has succeeded in establishing in their minds a correct standard of beauty; he finds another problem awaiting solution, which no amount of logic can assist in solving.

The young people before him, though ready and willing to do their best, are almost hopelessly lacking in manual dexterity. Their hands are clumsy and their movements cramped and stiff; and when the mind has read aright the image on the retina and the brain wills the necessary action to express the conception, the hand moves off slowly and uncertainly.

This difficulty can only be overcome and skill acquired by patient perseverance and unceasing practice. As a profound metaphysician has said of the manner of overcoming difficulties in the way of psychological study, "There is no way of doing this but by doing it."

Methods of execution, then, must be decided upon. These I can only mention, as time and space forbid description.

(a) Drill lines on blackboard, student standing at arm's length from board, causing arm to move off from shoulder.

(b) Drill lines on large sheets of paper, calling for same free arm movement.

(c) Time and memory sketches from models and casts.

(d) Work in various materials, other than pencil on paper and crayon on blackboard.

5. Apathy of public sentiment.

The last and perhaps the greatest difficulty which confronts the teachers of drawing in the normal schools of Wisconsin and neighboring States is the apathy of public sentiment in the matter. The leading educators have indeed rubbed their eyes open to the necessity of the case, and are beginning to feel that drawing is a good thing, though as yet they are not sufficiently awakened to fully realize in what respect it is a good thing. In a few of the large cities special attention has been given to the work, and the results are creditable. This, however, has been brought about by the personal interest of individual educators, and not because demanded by the general public. Drawing is not felt by the masses to be a necessity in the curriculum of public instruction. The State does not say that instruction in drawing must be given to the children in its schools.

What then should be the attitude of normal schools in this department?

Is it the object of the normal school to rise merely to the level of an existing demand, and prepare young men and women to do in the best possible way the work which the State desires to have done and no more?

Or should the normal school act as a promoter of demands? An bator of ideals, which, when fully fledged, are to be thrown fluttering fr the normal nest as stimulators of public sentiment, and "discouragers hesitancy" to timid educators?

If the former is true, then the work in drawing as I have outlined in the normal course is to a great extent unnecessary; for the supply w more than equal the demand, which is a condition of things to be carefully avoided in every system of economics. If, however, the normal scho should act as a stimulant, as a creator of higher ideals than the State cal for, then the responsibilities devolving upon the teachers in these schoo are great indeed; and the young teachers which these schools send ou must be equipped with faith and courage equal to that of their fathers and forefathers, the pioneers of the great new West. They have unbroken soil before them, and if their convictions are not strong enough to kindle a fire of enthusiasm which shall illumine the dark path before them, so that they at least may see the end from the beginning, there is little to be hoped from their efforts. But on the other hand, if they go out filled with faith in, and conviction of the truth they attempt to teach, they will succeed even though their methods of presentation yet lack the finish of ripened judgment and perfected technique. For, as we have hitherto stated, the strength that comes from conviction is the power that tells. The teacher who is sure of what he teaches gives like assurance to those he teaches; and we conclude with the proposition with which we started, that "education is nine parts inspiration and one part drill."

DRAWING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

REPORT OF MISS LOCKE.

The committee, appointed at Topeka, to correspond with principals of high and normal schools in regard to securing improved conditions for instruction in drawing, report as follows:

[THE FOLLOWING CIRCULAR LETTER WAS MAILED EXTENSIVELY.]

At the meeting of the Department of Art of the National Teachers' Association, held in Topeka, July, 1886, the undersigned were appointed a committee to correspond with Principals of High and Normal Schools in regard to securing improved conditions for instructions in Drawing. Will you kindly aid the Committee by filling out the accompanying blanks, and returning the paper to Miss Josephine C. Locke, office of Superintendent of Public Schools, St. Louis, Mo.?

JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE,
CHARLES M. CARTER,
LILIAN H. PICKENS,
JOHN L. ORDWAY,
JOHN HANCOCK.
} Committee.

QUESTIONS.

I. Write name of school, city or town, county, and state.

II. What is the amount of time per week given to drawing by each class in your school, the length of each period or lesson, and the average number of pupils to a class?

III. Is drawing optional or obligatory? If the former, what per cent. of pupils elect it?

IV. Have you a special room for drawing, and actual objects to draw from?

V. Do pupils do home-work, or practise in drawing outside of the regular exercise time?

VI. What materials are used by the pupils, and by whom are they furnished? If by the pupil, what is the average yearly cost per pupil?

VII. Does drawing count the same in ranking the pupils as in the other studies?

VIII. Are pupils required to draw on the blackboard?

IX. Are prizes ever given for particular studies?

X. How are your drawing materials taken care of?

XI. Describe the character of instruction given?

XII. Do any of the pupils model in clay, or have other art or industrial work in connection with drawing?

XIII. What object or aim have you in view in making or permitting drawing to be a branch of study in your school?

XIV. Are you satisfied with the present condition of drawing in your school? If not, state in what respects you wish an improvement.

XV. Do you think that more time could be advantageously devoted to drawing? If so, how much time could you devote per week?

Answers were received from forty-three normal schools, and from twenty high schools. Many of the high schools in larger cities, from which it would have been interesting to hear, did not respond.

Eighteen normal schools reported modeling in clay and making in pasteboard or other materials as practised in connection with drawing.

Thirty-nine make blackboard drawing by students a necessary part of the instruction. Of these, San Jose, California, and St. Louis, Missouri. require one-half of the actual drawing to be done at the blackboard.

It is obligatory in all the normal schools; while forty reported drawing as of equal value with the other work, in determining rank and promotion of students.

The length of the time in which regular instruction is given is variable. so is also the amount of time given per week. Some schools reported it as studied for twenty weeks only. The longest course is probably that found in the St. Louis normal, and which is pursued by young women who have not finished their academic work, not being high-school graduates. This course covers two and one-half years, of two hours and forty minutes per week. The least amount of time reported is forty-five minutes, once a week, while the greatest is three hours and forty minutes every week, for forty weeks.

Eighteen schools thought more time than they at present give would be desirable. A majority of schools complained of lack of preparation on the part of entering students. The object aimed at in pursuing the study appears to be:

1. To conform to the law of the State or school board.

2. As a means for rendering other knowledge more intelligible. As Dr. F. Louis Soldan put it: "The teacher, who can illustrate his subject readily by the use of chalk and blackboard, is better prepared to impart information than the one who lacks this ability."

A few schools are experimenting in the use of color. Sixteen reported themselves as well satisfied with their present course.

Looking back to three years ago, when the first circular for similar information was issued by this department, your committee can see much growth, especially in systematic teaching and a more general recognition of common principles. There is still, however, much aimless work, since only a certain amount of instruction can be covered in a course of three hours per week, for two years. A careful selection of work becomes necessary, those fundamentals being retained which link themselves to instruction in the other branches, and which also possess an educative and disciplinary value. Thus the principles of free-hand perspective are essential to all pictorial and illustrative work, while for developing the judgment and right thought concerning appearance in space, they are equally useful.

Your committee believe that adherence to pedagogical principles should prove as true in drawing as in number or geography; "the concrete before the abstract;" "the simple before the complex;" "wholes before details," are self-evident axioms. Because the mind of man is identical with the mind of the universe, there should be organic growth in the instruction, the stages of which ought to conform to the same general laws as in other studies, and which are commonly received as 1, nurture; 2, discipline; 3, culture.

Nurture—the nourishing of thought and the stimulating to self-activity, belongs in the primary grades.

Discipline—leading to self-control and freedom, should be the outgrowth of instruction in the grammar grades.

Culture—whose end is participation in the thoughts of others, and enjoyment for its own sake, must be the final outcome of art training in college and university.

The measure of the instruction in normal schools must be determined by the possibilities of the graded school. Continually are children found to assimilate instruction and develop ahead of the teacher. Educate the teacher! Educate the teacher! is the need of the hour.

No serious-minded person believes for a minute that the present status of drawing in education is the highest it is to take; rather is it in a pioneer condition, possessing certain permanent features, but burdened with many excrescences which the future will assuredly eliminate. Hence normal-school teaching must be of an elastic character, self-culture subordinating itself to professional preparation, which, in its turn will conform to the growth and progress of the graded school—a by no means fixed quantity.

As the tendency of modern methods is to relate closer the several studies, each finding in the other its complement, your committee look for an increase of intelligence and an economy in time, that shall make it possible to pursue certain directions farther. The human family is in a perpetually shifting condition. Our education needs to be of a character not only to impart present wisdom but to lift us higher than it finds us. Your committee hope to see the term "teaching drawing" merged into the larger meaning of "art education," to secure which they would recommend the following:

1. That students entering the normal school be required to show some previous preparation.
2. That the course of study shall conform to the needs of the district graded school.
3. That this subject shall be recognized both as an end and a means. As a means, it is to be used in making any information more intelligible through illustration; as an end, it is to be studied for the culture and æsthetic value to be derived from it.
4. That the time allotted shall extend uniformly through the entire course, and be not less than three hours per week.
5. That long periods of eighty minutes, for the conduct of exercises, be recommended in preference to short ones, of forty minutes each.
6. That this committee endorse most heartily the course of study adopted at Madison, and urge its adoption by all normal schools.
7. That schools be encouraged to the establishment of properly fitted up rooms and to the collecting of suitable material for teaching.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

The condition of drawing in these schools is not satisfactory; in only a few is it receiving a moderate degree of recognition, a fact largely due to the slowness of our educators to recognize it as an element of a liberal education; ignorance and lack of force in teachers employed has also much to do with it. People still persist in regarding art instruction as a specialty, whose end is in itself, rather than a study whose disciplinary, intellectual, and æsthetic value brings it in the closest union with all that is human. The morals, thought, and art of a people are a unity and not a diversity.

Of the twenty schools reporting, twelve are not satisfied with their present condition. The amount of time given varies from one recitation period of forty minutes per week, to a period of five hours and thirty minutes; it is, however, in the majority of schools two periods of forty-five minutes each. In one school, that at Columbus, Ohio, drawing is obligatory through the four years of the course, each of the five hundred pupils having two drawing periods a week, of forty minutes each. The management in this school appears most admirable and worthy of imitation by others. This school and the one at Worcester, Massachusetts, would seem to have accomplished the most. They have undoubtedly the best graded courses in the country. Although the Worcester plan is very different; there, the study is optional, yet fifty per cent. of the students elect it.

Usually the work is obligatory through the first year, and after that, optional or elective. Nine schools report they want more time; about the same number consider it in the marking and promotion of pupils; eight practise home work. Scarcely any blackboard drawing is done.

More misdirected effort is found in these schools than in the normal. Sometimes it is the result of poor teaching in the grammar and primaries; but often it is found in strong contrast with the educational work of the lower grades, consisting mainly of old-time picture-making by tyros; heads, animals, landscapes, and such like, all from flat copies. Your committee would enter their protest against such a waste of time and energy. There is no surer way to kill art feeling in young people than to sit them down to the reproduction of travesties about nature, before they have been brought by actual contact into sympathy with her. There is no such thing as learning to love and represent nature by proxy.

It is evident to your committee that as the study of æsthetics receives more attention, and as a love of the beautiful increases among the people, mere intellectual training will not satisfy public sentiment. Sooner or later there will come a time when the education of the higher emotions and the development of the imagination, through instruction in the plastic and graphic arts, must assert itself and modify the old-fashioned collegiate course, which at present tyrannizes over high schools. It is true, the history and theory of art are recognized in many of these schools, but these are taught separate from the practise of the same, concerning which Mr. Ruskin says, "All knowledge unaccompanied by a habit of useful action is likely to become deceitful; every habit of useful action must resolve itself into some form of manual labor." Much time is thus wasted. The proper study of art is to begin on the side of realization, through knowledge of material and structure; then as the mind proceeds from imperfect and crude to more perfect realizations, the idealistic unites itself with the artistic quality, and the training of the imagination is assured.

In view of these considerations your committee would recommend:

1. That wherever practicable, more time be devoted to this study; three hours per week seems reasonable.
2. That exercises be increased in length, by combining two of the present forty-five minute recitations.
3. That specially fitted up rooms be provided by school boards.
4. That art instruction be made obligatory upon all students as an element of a liberal education.
5. That the theory and history of art shall not be separated from the practise, but that they shall be taught connectedly, the practise preceding the theory.
6. The union of the constructive element with the graphic. Knowledge of material and structure to accompany line and surface delineation.

7. That the regular instructors require from students illustrations in the form of sketches of work done in the sciences, mathematics, zoology, physiology, the study of history, etc.

8. The employment of only competent and educated instructors.

So shall recognition of art in high schools have a two-fold value: 1. As supplementary to the general school work, as a means of clearer realization of knowledge; 2. Learning to create and enjoy the beautiful for its own sake.

[Signed,]

JOHN HANCOCK,
JOHN M. ORDWAY,
JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE.

REPORT ON DRAWING, MAKING, AND COLOR, IN CONNECTION WITH OTHER STUDIES.

At the meeting of the Art Department of the National Educational Association, held at Topeka, July, 1886, a committee appointed at Saratoga, in 1885, to consider the relation of drawing to other studies in the school curriculum, and how its use as a means of illustration in this direction may best be promoted, presented a report on drawing and making, accompanied by a suggestive exhibit from various parts of the country. On account of the interest shown, the committee was requested to continue the inquiry, to add color to the subjects under investigation, and to report again, in 1887.

The committee respectfully submit the following report:—

The tendencies of education of the present day are undoubtedly toward the ideas of Comenius—the learning of things instead of words, characterized as "realistic education" by Oscar Browning, in a recent article on "Aspect of Education." If things, not words, are to be the subject of study, the mode of expression for showing the results of study must undergo a corresponding change. If the subjects of study are less abstract than formerly, the expression of the results of study must, of necessity, be correspondingly less abstract. Hence, there have arisen, as allies to language or expression by words, various forms of concrete expression by means of making, drawing, and color.

The committee take great pleasure in reporting, as the result of the inquiries made, not only a greatly increasing appreciation among progressive teachers of these modes of expression, but also evidences of a distinct and growing recognition of their value in normal schools. Three normal schools report systematic instruction given by the drawing teacher, to develop "making and drawing" as educational means to be used in other studies, and two of these schools add "color" to the list. This, although it may seem a small beginning, is of great significance. The recognition by normal schools, not only of the educational importance of concrete expression by making, drawing, and color, but also of the necessity for proper and systematic provision for its development, shows that the movement is changing in character; that from being mainly sporadic, erratic, and individual, as progress generally is in its earliest stages, it is now being grounded educationally, and is advancing towards a recognized rank in normal preparation.

The specially striking example of the movement this year is the establishment by the Industrial Educational Association of New York City of a Normal Training College for teachers, which announces the following professorships: History and Institutes of Education; Mechanical Drawing and Wood-work; Domestic Science; Industrial Art, including clay modelling, and drawing in light, shade, and color; together with a training school, having Kindergarten, Primary, and Grammar departments.

In an address before this Association, last winter, Col. Francis W. Parker spoke as follows concerning these methods of work:—

"How would I use painting and modelling? To express thought. What thought? The thought necessary for growth: no other. What you want to have grow in the mind of the child have him express the form of in clay, if you please. One of the greatest means of growth is observation. When a child looks at a form to paint or draw it, there is an act of the will, stronger than he ever had before, and which causes true growth of the mind. What painting should precede drawing? First, the modelling or realization of the form; then, the next step is the representation of the surface in color. The child loves painting. He learns about the leaves and flowers. He has a little box of water-colors and his brushes, and he selects and mixes his colors to correspond. Is there anything better than that, when he finds the exact correspondent and represents these things in nature as he sees them? Or the child is to study nature from the beginning to the end. He is to know the A B C of all the sciences, so that he can read nature to a certain extent when he sees it. We are getting to the end of doing things for the sake of the thing done. We must turn around and search for the thing that pertains to the immediate and everlasting growth of the child; no matter what stands in the way."

THE EXHIBIT.

Particular attention is called to the exhibit accompanying this report. It will be found in the general Art Exhibit, placarded "Drawing, Making, and Color, as applied to other studies."

This exhibit should be examined, not with reference to technical execution, but with regard to the power gained by these means of awakening interest and thought. As has been said, "in schools higher than the kindergarten, we have yet to learn that pleasure is a far more potent instrument of training than pain."

The exhibit illustrates the use made of these means in teaching the following subjects: form, number, language, geography, history, botany, physics, astronomy, commercial products, crystallography; training in drawing, making, color, as applied to other studies.

COMMENTS FROM EXHIBITORS.

In explanation of the ends and purposes of the work exhibited, the committee present statements and also extracts from the letters of the exhibitors :—

Concerning the exhibit from a private kindergarten and primary class in New York city, showing the study of the appearance of form by the aid of color, Mrs. Mary F. Walton says :—

"I send you some samples of my experiments in drawing in color. The object was handled and carefully examined by each of the children, and then it was placed in front of them and talked about; then they took the colored chalk (common colored blackboard chalk); some saw shadows, and wished to put them in. I left it very much to themselves to see their own mistakes and work it out in their own way. The result was delightful to them, a real pleasure. After the lesson, all the drawings were pinned up and examined by the whole class, and the criticisms were very interesting. They were an unusually intelligent set of children. I shall continue the trial next winter with a younger class. This is, I think, the true method of training through drawing; and another winter I will begin in October, and work it steadily, and then I shall be able to speak of results."

Concerning the exhibit of primary color work with the brush, Miss Margaret Moore, of Clinton School, Syracuse, New York, says :—

"I would do better another term, but I have seen enough to know that the introduction of color in this practical way into primary schools would be a valuable aid to 'form' ideas. I don't think the work shows this so much as the children themselves. A bad piece of work is instantly declared so by them. This by the same children who showed me an equally faulty piece of pencil work, with considerable pride. The color seems to intensify the errors, so as to make them more palpable to the children's eyes. Those who have done color work are beg. A's. I would have liked to try a younger class. The brush certainly develops greater steadiness, as the child has to depend on his use of his muscles. He finds it impossible to brace for steadiness with a brush as he can with a pencil. Now, after the little practice they have had, I can see a strength, and steadiness, and delicacy of touch that were not in existence at the beginning of the work. The teacher who has the regular drawing class is delighted with the improvement these children have made in their regular book work. As a means of discipline for naughty children it is delightful. The moment the first bell rings, in they rush, and begin to work. It has, I think, cured one boy of the hateful habit of tardiness. How they will work at their other lessons, so as to have an opportunity to get out their little palettes! But, as I say, the work don't show all the good it has done.

"It clearly points to what might be accomplished under favorable circumstances, and it has given great pleasure to the children who tried it. Please give it the benefit of distance claimed by older artists when you look at it."

Concerning the exhibit from Worcester, Mr. Walter S. Perry, Supervisor of Drawing, says:—

"The work from Worcester illustrates in a slight degree the value beginning to be placed upon drawing as an aid in teaching other studies, and color as a means in developing form, etc.

"In many of the schools the pupils illustrate the stories which they write, with an interest and an originality that can only be developed by beginning with the young pupil; while many teachers have expressed themselves exceedingly pleased with the results, although incredulous at first.

"Color is rapidly gaining ground. At first, the pupils cut out all sorts of objects and patterns, butterflies, fishes, birds, and other natural forms, using combinations of colored paper, and pasted them upon a white or neutral ground. The skill and observation shown by small pupils in the lower grades have been a matter of great interest. One teacher, by simply encouraging such work with now and then an occasional criticism, has had box after box filled during the year, with material remarkable for the thought and observation developed on the part of her pupils.

"Again, in many cases this work has led to color work with children's non-poisonous water-colors. Teachers have been emphatic in their expressed opinions of the great aid color applied by the pupils has been in fixing the form and position of states, countries, etc., and in bringing out the details of natural forms.

"There has been much more interest manifested this year than ever before, and it is only a question of time when the facts of other studies will be more firmly fixed and time saved, by the aid to be realized through making, drawing, and color in connection with the regular studies."

Concerning the exhibit from Cook County Normal School, Illinois, Miss Belle Thomas says:—

"In making my collection, I've tried to send only such as has been used for the basis of other work. The few pieces of clay work belong to the geography and history of our fifth grade; the cardboard forms, to the number work in our fourth grade. Paper folding and cutting has been used in teaching square measure in our second grade. The set of history maps is from our eighth; I send this set, partly because of the child's decoration on the cover, her own idea.

"I wish that I might take you through our school and show the variety of hand work which is being done in every grade, and better still, the beautiful and practical way in which all of it is used with the regular school work. I have never seen the school grow so rapidly in this one direction as during the last six months."

Miss Annie Himes, just graduated from the Buffalo Normal School, New York, says, concerning the work which she sent:—

"The illustrations I have used during my year's work in the school of practice connected with the Buffalo Normal School. The sketch of a seesaw was used in the primary room to develop a little reading lesson. I made models for the purpose of teaching meridians, and which might be used from the fourth grade up to the first, which is our highest grade. I also invented an apparatus to illustrate tides, both flat and in globe form."

Concerning the work in botany from the Trenton High School, New Jersey, Miss Sarah L. Roberts says:—

"My botany class always draw illustrations of their work, sometimes from the growing plant, oftener from the text-book. This year I have been carrying out a new plan. My present class have been making drawings which I have mounted, to be used by next year's class in rapid recitation work."

Concerning the exhibit in Physics from the Waltham High School, Massachusetts, Mr. George E. Morris, Supervisor of Drawing, says:—

"These drawings, with notes, are presented merely as examples of the work carried on through the course.

"Regular exercises in drawing from the apparatus used were given by the special teacher of drawing, as an aid to the making of notes and sketches in the note-books, one of which is also sent. This book was that of a scholar ranking in the lowest fourth of the class."

Concerning the exhibits in botany, astronomy, and physics, from the Cambridge English High School, Massachusetts, Mr. Frank A. Hill sends the following tabulated statements:—

A.

1. Illustrated botanical compositions.
2. Regular school work, prepared without a suspicion of the use now made of it.
3. The whole class is represented here.
4. Owing to conditions needless to give in detail, but few of these pupils have had previous training in drawing.
5. Each composition is based on the study of some seed, its germination and growth. It is based on experiment and observation.
6. The ribbons and external ornamentation were no part of the requirements.

B.

1. Botany note-books.
2. Observations and experiment.
3. The pupils of this class have but slight training in drawing.
4. These are working books, prepared without knowledge or thought of the use now made of them.

C.*

Exercises in Astronomy (*illustrated*).
"The Telescope," George H. Oxford.
"Its Magnifying Power," Nettie A. McKinnon.
"Glimpses of Planets," Carrie F. Colburn.
"The Surface of the Moon," Alice M. Smith.
"Shakespeare and the Moon," Margaret G. Mulloney.

Explanation of Charts used in connection with the Essays.

1. Prepared by pupils to illustrate the exercises in astronomy.
2. Black and white crayons used, with a little charcoal at times.
3. Other material used in the same number; lenses, a prism, a candle, an opera-glass, and a pointer, also a telescope.
4. Charts fixed to a frame from below, and let down from pins at the top.
5. Crayon fixed by a solution of white shellac in alcohol.
6. To be viewed as diagrams. Purposely coarse for distance effect.
7. Based on actual observation and experiments. The last chart, however, is a copy from Trouvelot, but gives only what the pupil actually saw of *Gassendi* through the telescope.

This exhibit was accompanied by the graduating essays.

An exhibit from the Salem Normal School shows the result of training in the use of drawing, making, and color, given in regular class exercises, by the teacher of drawing, Miss Lizzie Herrick.

A lesson given to a class of children at the closing exercises of the Normal Art School, Massachusetts, June, 1887, by Miss Elizabeth H. Perry, a member of the normal class, is illustrated in the exhibit. Miss Perry sends also the following description of the lesson :—

"In the preceding lesson the class moulded the cube, and suggested methods of bisecting it on diameters and diagonals. The first being decided upon, the cube was cut, obtaining the square prism. This new form was studied, its name given, and drawings of the square and oblong faces made. In the lesson here illustrated, the children select square prisms from a number of solids We then present square prisms, varying in color and size, and placed in different positions. The top and front views of these prisms are laid in tablets of proper color, the idea that the view need not of necessity be colored, being first impressed upon the mind.

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*Extract from the order of exercises of the graduating class, June 20, 1887.

"The development of the form is now made by one pupil on a clay tablet before the class, others working on sand-paper, the latter omitting one square face. A little conversation on the uses of sand-paper leads the children to see that from this development we may make a match-scratcher.

"They will suggest that a front of colored paper will improve the appearance of the object. They select a color, cut, and paste."

EDUCATIONAL PAPERS.

The tendency toward expression through making, color, and drawing is also very strongly seen in the educational papers. Hardly a single number of an educational journal appears without a device for the school-room. The department of "Methods for the School-Room" is a necessity. The headings read, "Unique Method in History," "Graphic Story Telling," "Paper Cutting and Clay Modelling," "Modelling in Snow," "Individual Moulding Boards," "Illuminated Compositions," "Graphic Physiology," "Production Maps," "Practical Work in Botany," "Illuminated History," "Object Work in Arithmetic," "Graphic History," "Historic or Literary Pictures," etc.

CONCLUSION.

Thus it is seen that on all sides the movement in favor of concrete expression is rapidly growing. The problem at present seems to be how to develop the power of this expression in accordance with sound principles of teaching. The exhibit is extremely interesting as representing the growth of the movement, but it also shows the great need of provision for systematic instruction in making, drawing, and color. At present, these various means are used in the school-room almost universally, without ability on the part of the teachers to properly utilize them or to suggest improvement. But if students of normal schools could receive training in the principles and methods of using making, drawing, and color, what an influence and an impetus would be given to the use of these valuable educational means in all school work!

The committee would say, in conclusion, that, in view of the eagerness with which these means are being adopted, it seems of very great importance that educators should turn their attention to the consideration of ways by which these means of expression can be made effective, and that strong efforts should be made in normal schools, not only to suggest and encourage the use of making, drawing, and color in other studies, but also to give students systematic training in them. The committee would therefore recommend the continuance of the inquiry.

MARY D. HICKS,
WALTER S. PERRY. } Committee.*

July 8, 1887.

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*To the great regret of the other members, Mr. Anson K. Cross resigned from the committee on account of pressure of work at the Normal Art School.

PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

Department of Music Education.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 13, 1887.

The Department of Music of the National Educational Association met in Central Music Hall, at 2.30 P. M., the president of the department, O. S. Westcott, of Chicago, in the chair.

President Westcott delivered the opening address of the session; subject: "What Has Been Done in the Public Schools for and with Vocal Music?"

The next address was by Gen. Thomas J. Morgan, principal of the Rhode Island State Normal School; subject: "Shall the State Teach Music?" Mr. Frederick W. Root, of Chicago, followed Gen. Morgan with a paper upon "Voice Training and Singing," illustrating his paper with exercises and songs rendered by a chorus of pupils trained by himself, and assisted by Mr. S. A. Baldwin, organist, and Mr. Herbert Hutchins, cornetist.

The discussion of papers was postponed until the next session.

President Westcott appointed Supt. L. C. Lord, of St. Peter, Minn. H. E. Holt, of Boston, and O. B. Blackman, of Chicago, a committee on nominations to present a list of officers for the ensuing year.

The department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 14, 1887.

The department met pursuant to adjournment at 2.30 P. M., President Westcott in the chair. Paper: "The Educational Value of the Tonic Sol Fa System," by Daniel Bachelor, Philadelphia. It was discussed briefly by H. S. Perkins, of Chicago, N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, and H. E. Holt, of Boston.

Mr. Blackman, of Chicago, discussing Mr. Bachelor's paper, presented the following objections to the Tonic Sol Fa system of instruction:—1. As a notation, because we already have one in use universally. 2. Because it is an imperfect notation, in that it does not adequately represent pitch. 3. Because what of absolute pitch it does teach comes afterwards from the relation, which is scientifically "wrong side up"—the cart before the horse. 4. Because, beginning with the relation of tones, it postpones and dismisses indefinitely the careful and critical study of the science of music. 5. Because only comparatively simple music can be written in it. 6. Because instrumental music must have another notation. 7. Resulting from this is a continued strife between the player and the singer; instead of harmony, discord; instead of each helping the other, each is pulling the other down 8. Because as a method simply leading to the staff, it takes twice the time to teach it. 9. Because the short school life of most of our pupils will be used up before they get well grounded in the staff notation. 10. Because the method is inconsistent with the methods pursued in any other branch of study. In every other branch the educator feels the necessity from the first of taking his pupil in the direct line of all his future study, not deviating one hair's breadth to the right or left. 11. Because when the English language is taught by means of the German text, then it is time enough to adopt the tonic sol fa notation to lead to the staff. 12. What we do need is a short road to the reading of music. We can have it. Our children at ten ought to read the musical text as readily as they read the third and fourth readers. 13. The world is more and more looking toward the public schools to see them make a substantial beginning in the study of music. The musical profession, especially the best musical educators, are looking toward us with longing and hope, that they may see our groundwork well laid. 14. But we often hear from the public school educator remarks that indicate no disposition to get into accord with the musicians.

At the close of Mr. Blackman's remarks, he offered the following motions :—

(1) *Moved*, That the Music Department of the National Teachers' Association recommends that all educators urge upon the legislatures of the various States, that they prescribe by law, that the children of the public schools shall be taught to read music in the staff notation.

(2) *Moved*, That a committee of three be appointed on terminology to confer with a similar committee appointed by the Music Teachers' National Association in session last week at Indianapolis.

(3) *Moved*, That the following questions be submitted to a committee of five, and they be requested to report thereon at the meeting or 1888:—

1. What can be done toward the unifying of the methods pursued in musical instruction in the public schools ?

2. What can be done to bring into closer union of feeling and method the workers in the lower and higher departments of musical instruction ?

Action upon these motions was postponed until the business session.

The last paper of the session, " Fervent Voice—Its Nature and Reflex Influence," by William L. Tomlins, of Chicago, was illustrated with a chorus of pupils instructed by Mr. Tomlins.

Discussing still further Mr. Bachelor's paper, Mr. Holt said that his experience had convinced him that neither the tonic sol fa system of instruction nor any other system based upon a so-called simplified notation is necessary, when pupils are properly instructed from the beginning. If pupils are taught to think intelligently in music, the signs and representations of music will take care of themselves. Mr. Holt called to the platform a little girl who was in the audience, from one of the Boston schools under his charge, to illustrate the ability of small children to sing readily in either of the keys from the staff representation, when music is taught as he would have it taught.

The committee on nominations reported. Officers for the ensuing year were elected as follows:—

President—N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, O.

Vice-President—Herbert Griggs, of Denver, Col.

Secretary—Edgar O. Silver, of Boston, Mass.

The motions previously made by Mr. Blackman came up for discussion. Mr. Bachelor moved to amend the first motion, by striking out the words "from the staff notation." Amendment seconded by Mr. Griggs, of Denver. Debate participated in by Mr. Blackman, of Chicago, Mr. Bachelor, of Philadelphia, Mr. Perkins, of Chicago, Mr. Stewart, of Cleveland, Mr. Collins, of Xenia, O., and Mr. Tomlins, of Chicago. Amendment carried. The several motions as amended were then carried.

In accordance therewith President Westcott named as a committee of three on terminology, O. S. Blackman, of Chicago, H. E. Holt, of Boston, and N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland.

Mr. L. W. Mason, of Boston, moved that the name of Dr. George F. Root be substituted for that of H. E. Holt, on the committee. At the suggestion of the chair it was voted to add the name of Dr. George F. Root to the committee as appointed.

President Westcott nominated the following committee of five, to consider the questions involved in Mr. Blackman's third motion, and report at the meeting of the Association, in 1888: H. S. Perkins, of Chicago, T. H. Brand, of Madison, Wis., W. F. Heath, Fort Wayne, Ind., L. C. Lord, St. Peter, Minn., Daniel Bachelor, Philadelphia, Pa.

On motion of Mr. T. H. Brand, of Madison, Wis., the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That Professor O. S. Westcott has faithfully and sincerely devoted his time and attention to the special benefit of the Music Department of the National Educational Association for the past three years; therefore, we, the members of said department, tender to him our sincere thanks.

Department adjourned.

EDGAR O. SILVER, *Secretary*.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR AND WITH VOCAL MUSIC?

BY PRESIDENT O. S. WESTCOTT, CHICAGO.

When, three years ago at Madison, the present speaker somewhat reluctantly consented to attend a preliminary meeting of musical people, with a view to the organization of the present section, he little thought that he was paving the way for the occupancy of his responsible position of. to-day.

Perhaps it is not altogether unseemly for us to indulge in a little self-gratulation, that our claims to recognition as a distinct section were so promptly regarded; and I venture to indulge the hope that we shall be able to maintain such a rank with our sister sections as will insure our permanent existence.

Let us not, however, forget that our existence depends upon ourselves: upon our willingness to make vigorous and constant effort in the field which has been made our peculiar charge.

As indicated by the bulletin and programmes, the chairman of this section is expected to give a *résumé* of what has been done in the schools for and with vocal music.

Since agreeing to present this subject, I have had called to my attention a paper prepared by Hon. John Eaton, formerly United States Commissioner of Education, published in No. 1 of Circulars of Information of the Bureau of Education, for the year 1886.

It is a matter of great regret that the bulletins and circulars of information issued from the various departments at Washington receive so little thoughtful attention. In conversation with leading educators I have sometimes been informed that such and such documents were always received and carefully filed away, but rarely perused. That the ease with which they are procured should be interpreted as any implication of lack of value to the documents is extremely unjust. Some of the most valuable papers in the world, many of them treating of exceedingly abstruse scientific matters, have been issued from the departments at Washington, and it is unfortunate that any should have gotten the impression that anything of inferior worth can be issued from such a source.

If the document above mentioned, like so many of its comrades, has thus far been largely neglected, perhaps it will not be an entirely fruitless labor for one to call attention to the lessons of its statistical tables.

We note,

(1) A detailed series of statistics from ninety-six (96) cities and towns in the United States where music is not taught in the public schools. The reasons given for the lack of musical instruction in these places are various but trite. In some cases no reasons are assigned for the neglect, the simple statement that music is not taught being all the information vouchsafed. Specimen reasons are: "Musical instruction is expensive." "We have not sufficient money." "Our schools are but recently or crudely organized." "We do not believe that musical instruction is specially important." "There is no demand for such instruction." "Our experiments in this direction have hitherto proved futile." "We have not time enough." "Our teachers are not well instructed in music and hence are incompetent to teach it."

(2) A series of tables next following calls attention to one hundred and thirty-three (133) cities and towns where music is taught, and is taught by the usual teaching force. A little closer reading shows also that above thirty-eight per cent. of these places have music taught by rote and by no definite system. The other places report instruction on the basis of "fixed *do*," instruction on the basis of "movable *do*," instruction by the "tonic sol fa," and instruction by a combination of two or all of these systems.

(3) Then follows a table, showing a total of nineteen (19) cities and towns where music is taught by special teachers and by these only, the same variety of methods obtaining here as in the previous class.

(4) Lastly, we have statistics from ninety-six (96) cities and towns where music is taught both by special teachers and by the ordinary teaching force. Here, too, appears the same variety of methods as in the two previous classes, with the addition of a single group of eleven (11) more or less prominent cities and towns where music is said to be taught by "unique or exceptional methods." Chicago figures in this list.

This report from 344 cities and towns represents a population of nearly eight millions, a school population of over two millions, and a school enrollment of over 1,200,000. While these figures respectively represent less than one-eighth of the corresponding numbers for the entire United States, they may nevertheless be used as a plausible basis for conclusions. Only twenty-eight per cent. of the cities and towns from which reports were received, have systematic instruction from a combination of special teachers and the ordinary teaching force. Doubtless there will be little, if any, dissent from the opinion that this plan is the coming and the desirable one. That as a rule, all can sing, is a belief to which most educators are fast coming, and that all can instruct in the rudiments of music no longer admits of question. The task, then, to which we are to address ourselves is the moulding of public opinion with some four-fifths of our population, so as to lead to a practice at least co-extensive with what is now nearly a universal belief.

Noticeable and gratifying, therefore, in this report is the small number of cities and towns where instruction is confined to special teachers. It is evident that the paper read to this body a year ago, by Miss Dunning as to "What the Rank and File of Teachers can do in Musical Instruction" was right in the line of the belief of many school authorities. Let us hope that that paper may be read and appreciated even more extensively, that further reports from the bureau of education may show as near a universality of instruction by this method as there is universality of belief in its efficacy.

Ex-Commissioner Eaton is certainly deserving of our sympathy in his expressed tribulation in the matter of getting satisfactory information on this topic, by reason of the diverse, not to say perverse, methods, in which music instructors use the English language. The same difficulty, a difficulty of nomenclature, had to be overcome on the first efforts of educational people to compare the general educational statistics of cities; and now, says Commissioner Eaton, "If the musical profession, in beginning to organize the information touching instruction in music, can at the outset agree on the use of terms, it will soon come to disseminate these terms outside of the profession, and laymen will be using these terms with the same meaning. When there is a uniform use of terms conveying the same idea, there is established a rallying line, and the defence of musical instruction can be maintained as never before."

This position is undoubtedly sound, and were the advice heeded, we should have more definitely marked out a line of moral instruction, which in many cases schools are said to need, but never possess. I take it that the inculcation of truth in any direction is the inculcation of morality. The teacher of music, who allows his pupils to rush independently, if not recklessly, through their work, may succeed in bringing out showy pupils, but it will be at the expense of their moral character. Mathematical accuracy and musical rhythm go hand in hand. The false resolution of an equation and the false resolution of a chord are equally unsatisfying equally untruthful, equally immoral.

I know of a child who had among his teachers the reputation of being inexcusably imaginative; with his mates he was notoriously untruthful. No doubt, accurate instruction in music would have done for him what object-lessons in botany did in a very brief time accomplish. Examining leaves, buds, stems, flowers, and reporting things actually seen, eventually established in him a reputation for truthfulness which was maintained unshaken among his fellow pupils and with all his teachers. And yet we are told by perhaps our most prominent American authority on pedagogy, that there is scarcely any culture in the studies of zoology and botany, unless possibly by reason of the phenomenon of life. Surely culture should include the knowledge and the practice of the manly virtues. Let us have any good means to a good end, and give it proper credit.

The dogma of the so-called new education (*Comenius redivivus*), "We learn to do by doing," can have no better field for its exercise than that of music. What has been done is but a small part of what may be and what should be done. To be sure the introduction of music into public schools has done much to pave the way for the modern musical convention, as distinct from the old-fashioned weekly singing-school. The rudiments of vocal music that formerly were taught at the evening singing-school are now made familiar to the children of the primary grades. Following the possible occasional convention is the National Music Teachers' Association with its branch State organizations.

A year ago, the present speaker said all it seemed to him the province of an unprofessional layman to say, on musical topics. Then, as now, his standpoint was that of general education rather than that of particular culture in music. Why should not versatility be deemed a desirable quality with teachers of vocal music as well as with teachers of other branches of science? Why should music teachers become so wedded to some system, as to either ignore or condemn all other systems as productive only of harm? Is there anything, *per se*, in music or musical accomplishments which should lead human beings to be extraordinarily inappreciative of their fellows? We talk of the ameliorating influences of vocal music, and forget the jealousies of rival vocalists and impresarios. We prate of the soul-elevating and heart-expanding tendencies of instrumental music, and think naught of the contentions of rival composers, instrumental musicians, and orchestra leaders.

How strange it is that "Music, heavenly maid" should, in some mysterious and inscrutable manner so influence different temperaments, as apparently to reveal and even augment the most disagreeable traits of human character. Is it because the goddess is wooed but never fully won? And is the rivalry but a phase of a peculiar jealousy? The fairest girl may indeed be the occasion, and yet the innocent occasion, of rivalry and bloodshed.

It is hoped that the spice of suggested acrimony, which has sometimes perhaps too highly flavored the discussions of this department, may this year be omitted.

Too heated discussions about theories accomplish no good results. The breath and the time expended in annihilating a rival teacher might be better employed in devising plans for the instruction of youth in such elementary matters as those, in regard to which there is and can be no pronounced difference of opinion. All roads lead to Rome.

To say, that the scientific, intellectual side of our Boston musical instructor is the only desirable thing, or that the fervency and æsthetic cu tivation of voice of our Apollo leader are the only things worthy of ac sition, is alike foolish. Let the one supplement the other. Nor ne these indicated modes of work be separated by any broad interval of tim for one must not so supersede the other as to become a controlling in ence to the partial neglect or exclusion of the other. The skilful read is frequently a hard, harsh, unsympathetic performer; while the cu vated vocalist is frequently at a loss when confronted with unfami music.

If we may but combine the intellectuality from the distinct East wit our æsthetic fervency here, and, if need be, use the representative to sol fa from the Empire State as a mordant, no doubt our musical fabr will be dyed and thoroughly dyed, and the colors be more lasting th even the eternal hills.

SHALL THE STATE TEACH MUSIC?

BY GEN. THOMAS J. MORGAN, PRINCIPAL OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
PROVIDENCE, R. I.

"Unless a school master know how to sing, I think him of no account."—*Luther.*

We are slowly outgrowing the notion that the common schools should confine their instructions to the "three R's." Preparation for the duties of citizenship is not completed when the child can read a ballot, write his name, and count the price of his vote. Gradually the curriculum of even the commonest school is enlarging so as to include physiology, history, morals, and civics.

The friends of vocal music claim that it should be taught scientifically in every public school, as a regular study, and that special attention should be paid to it in all the lower grades, particularly the primary and the kindergarten.

One of the obvious reasons for this is that music lends a charm to the school and renders it attractive. The kindergarten games with musical accompaniment are fascinating for little children; in the primary grades no time passes more delightfully than that spent in singing. With proper training the love for music grows with the growth of the pupil, and even in academy, high school, normal school, and college, music hath still its charms, and the recollection of hymns and the echo of songs linger long in the memory of graduates, and recall some of the sweetest experiences of school-days. There are very few children indeed, who are not susceptible to its influences. Even those who do not sing are glad to hear others sing. School is not attractive to all. Many find its restraints irksome, its routine monotonous, its discipline hard to bear. Whatever can be done to awaken in such pupils a love for school should be done, and to some of them certainly music may be winsome.

Music is an aid in school government. It softens childish asperities, sweetens the temper, and predisposes to obedience. Harmony is the soul of music, and where this reigns discord vanishes. Especially is it true that teachers who love song are less likely to be snappish and to stir up antagonisms than those who do not. Singing at the opening of the school brings at once all hearts into unison, and is an admirable preparation for the work of the day. Those who have come bent on mischief are disarmed. When school closes with a song in which all join, the tired minds find rest, the overtaxed nerves are relieved, the little annoyances of the day are forgotten, wounded feelings are healed, and the children go to their homes not to find fault with the school, but to praise it, and instead of plotting mischief for the morrow they plan pleasant things. Music is helpful as a means of physical training. It promotes deep breathing, erect posture, and encourages a proper regard for the throat and lungs as the instruments of sound. By cultivating the voice, it becomes especially valuable as an auxiliary to pleasing conversation, good reading, and elegant speaking. It is an invaluable means for securing mental development, the chief end for which schools are established. Rightly taught, it develops attention, observation, specially trains the sense of hearing, cultivates the memory, imagination, and judgment. It secures precision, promptness, and cultivates good taste. It promotes cheerfulness, fortitude, good fellowship, and an appreciation of the mutual dependence of all who live together in a community. It is a preparation for good citizenship.

It is a thought worthy of special consideration that the effects of music learned at school are felt at once in the home circle. The busy mother and the tired father may not care to hear the child recite the multiplication table, analyze a sentence, describe the climate of China, or read a selection from the fourth reader; but they will be pleased to listen as the child sings when at her work or play, and often that song may be the very breath of heaven to drive from the home the clouds of care and sorrow. The masses of school children come from the homes of the poor, where life is serious, and where there is not much to cheer. A happy child, singing the songs of the school, is an angel of beauty in such a household. Often children of the same family or of the same neighborhood form a choir, whose music is one of the greatest charms of the circle. Life is bitter enough at best, and, even under the most favorable circumstances, the weight of care is hard to endure. We need the help of music to gladden the heart, cheer the hope, and drown our sorrows. In what other way can the sweet influence be so widely diffused as by its introduction into all our schools, from whence it penetrates the humblest cottage as well as the more favored home?

A very large proportion of our population have an interest in some form of religious worship where music is employed, and musical instruction in school enables the children to share in this delightful service. Thus their education becomes in the highest degree tributary to their well being. Those who insist so strongly that the schools should be practical, and should prepare their pupils for their various spheres in life, must concede that the ability to sing is a preparation for home life, a passport in society, an indispensable prerequisite to participation in church service, and a sweet solace to many even in solitude.

Every one who has been in Germany knows how large a part music plays in the pleasures of the people. Their musical festivals are attended by thousands who find in them their highest delight. The over-driven people of America need the recreation, the amusement, the happiness which would flow immediately out of universal instruction in music in our public schools.

Unlike many of the popular amusements music leaves no sting behind. Its tendency is to refine and ennoble. It is incomparably better for the people to love music than to love prize-fighting, bull-baiting, horse-racing, or even boat-racing or ball-playing. It is suitable for men, women, and children; it is within the reach of all; it promotes sociability, improves the manners, and offers little inducement for excess or immoralities.

An incidental advantage growing out of our public school system is the equalization of life's blessings. Wealth with all its attendant advantages tends towards aggregation, the rich grow richer and the poor poorer. Classes grow apart, social distinctions incline toward fixedness. Caste grows up; the poor become discontented, and social antagonisms, jealousies, hatreds spring up that threaten the peace and prosperity of all. The public school helps to prevent all this by putting the rudiments of education, which are the elements of power, into the hands of the poorest. The rich, by the pittance of a school tax, maintain a system of education that calls into exercise all the latent powers that slumber in the minds of the children of poverty, awakens ambition, cultivates an appreciation of the beautiful, develops a consciousness of power, a sense of dignity, and starts them in life's struggle with something like an even chance. The public school levels up. Cultivation in music plays a large part in this levelling-up process. It is in its nature æsthetic, it reaches the taste, cultivates a love for beauty in all its forms, and opens to the unfolding mind some of the rarest pleasures, which otherwise might be the sole prerogative of the rich.

Another great function of the American public school is to arouse in the hearts of our youth a sympathy for each other. The most obvious feature of our population is its mixed character. We have all nationalities represented, and in many parts of the country the native and the foreign elements are about equally divided. We have Germans and French, English and Irish, Russians and Poles, Italians and Scandinavians, Negroes and Chinamen. The elements of racial war are here in great abundance. Our peace and prosperity as a nation depend largely upon the complete harmonization of these clashing elements. This is our great task, the one great problem of the age. To break down race distinctions, destroy race prejudices, annihilate inherited hatreds, and bring all these peoples under the sway of common ideas and sentiments is an undertaking that may well stagger the stoutest heart. But it must be done; out of this manifoldness we must become one people, *E pluribus unum.*

There is but one agency that is competent for this mighty task, and that is the American public school, where all are on a level; where rich and poor, high and low, native and foreign, white and black, the Christian and the heathen Chinee, meet together, and the common school teacher is the friend of them all. The first bond of union is a common language—the English. Children who speak with vernacular fluency the same tongue are no longer aliens to each other. All other differences are slight compared with a difference of speech. When this is gone, intercourse is made easy, misunderstandings disappear, reconciliations are a simple matter, and children readily fraternize, and, in most cases, as readily intermarry. Race peculiarities, with some exceptions, are not troublesome when under the same roof, and German and French blood flow gently together in the same veins.

The influence of song in breaking down discordant differences is scarcely less than that of language itself. I stood recently in the great school at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, where four hundred Indian boys and girls, representing forty different tribes, with generations of bloody antipathies, were singing; and as the volume of song rose in its majestic and harmonious swell, all hearts seemed united. When a little later I saw, out on the campus, Sioux, Pawnees, and Apaches parading arm in arm, seemingly unconscious of any tribal distinction, it seemed a prophecy of "the good time coming," when under the influence of the public schools, the children of this land will know no difference of ancestry, but will all be Americans. Music is not the only nor the chief agency in this tremendous transformation; but it is one of the greatest, one of the most effective, and one of the most indispensable factors. To neglect it is the height of folly; to use it, the highest wisdom.

Another reason for teaching music in the public schools is that it is a part of a complete education. Education is the unfolding and disciplining of all our powers, and the capacity for music is just as much a part of our common human nature as the ability to think. The appreciation of sounds is second in importance only to the appreciation of form and color. To neglect the ear while we train the eye is to discriminate unfairly against one of the chief senses. To educate a child and not train him in music is to give him a one-sided culture, a truncated development. He is not a complete man, he is defective. Incapable of appreciating the marvellous and exhaustless beauties of sound, unable to express his feelings in the most expressive way, shut out from sympathetic companionship with those more fortunate than himself, he has been robbed of his birthright.

The State has practically monopolized the business of education; the great mass of children receive no other training than that received in the public school, and when they leave it they quit systematic study. Their education in its truest sense is ended. If they receive no musical training in school, they never receive it. If the State does not provide for the culture of this important part of their nature, it remains dormant. When grown to manhood and womanhood they will have a right to say to the State, "We are grateful to you for your care of us in childhood, for the provisions you made for our education, but we feel that your work was not complete. You taught us to read, but not to sing; to express our thoughts in words, but not in song; to appreciate the beauties of color, but not of sound. You opened the way for an appreciation of the world's great poets, but not for its great composers." I do not see how the State can reply to this criticism. It has assumed to educate; it takes under its care millions of little children, and keeps them at school from five to fourteen, the most impressable period of life, and says to the parent, "Ample provision has been made for the education of your children; costly school-houses, competent teachers, and extensive superintendence have rendered private work unnecessary." The State educates. This puts the State under the most solemn obligation to do all that is implied in the word education. At least, if the State undertakes the education of the child during its early years, it owes it to the child to do all that ought to be done during those years.

If music is ever to be taught it must be taught in childhood. It should begin in the nursery, be fostered by the mother, and encouraged in the home circle. But the time and place for systematic musical training is the school. It should find a place in the regular curriculum, and form a part of the daily exercises. It should be a steady, continuous, prolonged course, beginning with the simplest rudiments and leading the child on by successive steps, systematic drill, and much practice, until he can render difficult pieces, appreciate the choicest classics, and himself know something of composition.

But the question whether the State shall teach music is much broader than it seems. It is really the question whether popular education shall be restricted to the merely practical, the useful, the bread-and-butter studies, or whether it shall include those which refine and liberalize. Shall we teach only facts, or shall we also teach the beautiful? Is man only a beast of burden, or is he a social being and capable of the highest and noblest enjoyments? On every side is heard a clamor for industrial education, manual training, the teaching of trades. Some would even convert the school into a laundry, a carpenter shop, or a smithy; pupils into apprentices and teachers into master mechanics. While conceding the force of many of these arguments, and a modicum of truth in some of the claims, it should be strongly insisted upon that the prime aim of schools is the training of faculty, the development of character, culture. A child trained to think, to feel, to enjoy, will find ways for getting a living and for gratifying his taste.

Life does not consist in the abundance of things one possesses, but in the ability to enjoy what one has. A large place in even the primary schools can be vindicated for vocal music as a culture study, an instrument of refinement, and of enrichment for the soul.

VOICE TRAINING AND SINGING.

BY FREDERIC W. ROOT, CHICAGO.

It is against my principles to treat the subject of vocalization in the transcendental fashion so long in vogue; so I am cut off from that kind of high-flown rhapsody about singing which audiences seem never to tire of. Still, if I am not entertaining, I will at least try not to conduct you across the desert, limitless and dry, of merely technical discourse.

After some perplexity as to what I had best say on this occasion, I have concluded to show you, as fellow educators, some of the difficulties in the way of the student of voice culture, thus accounting for the wide diversity of view upon the subject which you know to exist; then to give you a few glimpses of singing from my standpoint; and finally, to make some suggestions which may be of service to those having children's voices in charge.

All that is positively known and generally agreed upon regarding voice culture is what any generation of singers and teachers could discover for itself. There are at present hopeful signs of a disposition among the profession to talk the subject over and record the experience of one generation for the benefit of the next. As yet, however, nothing is definitely established beyond the more evident aspects of vocalization. There are those who think that this is as far as we need go in exploring it; because when a highly gifted student of singing is educated according to the maxims and principles which are commonly known, the results are so brilliant as to discredit further analysis or a multiplication of details in training.

Now, some in every department are mysteriously endowed with powers of flight; but if the masses of us would fly, we must make our own wings with laborious attention to details. As the material from which the wings of musical inspiration are fashioned is less cumbersome than that with which Darius Green prepared for bodily flight, the careful student of singing may reasonably hope to succeed better than did Mr. Trowbridge's amateur scientist.

I wonder if the teachers in other departments of education, in formulating their systems of instruction, have to contend with the kind of logic which critics use to discourage analysis and the exact grading of vocal method? They say, because Malibran, Pasta, Sontag, and Mario, attained their marvellous excellence without knowledge of little details of breathing and throat action, therefore, the way to produce such excellence is to omit all reference to such details.

Leibnitz mentions a Swedish boy who knew, apparently by intuition, the solution of difficult mathematical problems. A distinguished astronomer, at one time located in this city, was similarly gifted from childhood. I suppose there are other instances. Has it ever been proposed to do away with the minute subdivisions of a mathematical course in order to make all the boys in the public schools like these men ?

In other departments of music they are more sensible. Mozart and Mendelssohn knew in advance about everything their teachers could tell them. Yet theorists are still hard at work analyzing and grading the science of harmony and counterpoint.

Here, it seems to me, we may get some light on a question that agitates the musical world somewhat; and educators too are interested in it. I refer to the tonic sol-fa system, which is an effort to still further simplify, systematize, and multiply the aids to musical culture. Musicians who have little to do with elementary work oppose it as unnecessary. Music teachers who have the knack of inventing accessories to staff notation, or are especially expert in teaching it to beginners, see no need for any other. But I regard tonic sol-fa as a higher attenuation, as homœopaths say, of musical instruction—better adapted to the earliest stages than anything else, and marking the kind of advance that is shown in modern elementary readers and geographies. Yet success to him who would mount with the wings of song is not as certain as it ought to be; and I am obliged to-day to claim for voice culture, as a pedagogic science, the distinction, such as it is, of bringing up the extreme rear of educational progress. In the first place, it has been the custom in past times for those who knew anything about voice training to guard their knowledge as a patent right is guarded, that they alone might reap the rewards of their knowledge, and that they might avoid furnishing resources to their competitors; the good they learned suffering the fate which Mark Antony ascribed to the good which men do, and was generally interred with their bones.

Then there are important reasons for the backwardness of voice culture in the nature of the subject; I can think of no other department of education which, as to its details, comes so imperfectly within the focus of mental vision. The machinery of singing besides being extremely complicated, is mostly out of sight; and indeed, much of it is out of range of the other senses. For instance, in the larynx at the very centre of the vocal process, the sense of feeling is lacking. Sensation, therefore, is likely rather to mislead than to help in a search for the truths of vocal physiology.

Like a bird that suspects you of searching for her nest, the tone as one sings seems to twitter against the forehead, perch upon the bridge of the nose, flutter along the roof of the mouth, dart down to the chest, and make feints at every point of the anatomy, except the larynx where its home really is. Current phrases of voice culture show this separation of sensation from fact, as they refer to various parts of the chest and head and not to the larynx. This is all well enough practically, because the sensation of throat action in singing is a wrong one. Still, it is one of the obstacles in the way of a system of voice culture, in that it leads theorists into marshes of hypothesis, where they have no footing upon facts. One such, because he feels the tone in the chest and not in the throat, writes a book in which he claims the honor of discovering that voice is from the vibrations of the mucous linings of the windpipe. Furthermore, all the complicated and hidden machinery of voice is naturally inclined to rebel against the behests of the intelligence. This is illustrated in the action of the tongue, which, for certain effects in vocalization, the intelligence directs shall be drawn down at the base. One's first efforts toward this are more apt to raise than to lower it. Our family physicians are very familiar with this phenomenon; and there are but few of us who, when we supposed we were opening our throats cavernously, have not been obliged to submit to the assistance of a spoon handle. But the tongue has a bad reputation for docility. We will take other examples among the indispensable acts of vocalization. Try to raise the soft palate and you will probably find the tongue writhing and twisting, while the palate remains calmly inactive; or try to raise the larynx or approximate vocal cords, and they will prove to be, like moving the ears, in the catagory of difficult accomplishments. Because of this rebellion, tones which come from a thought of the vocal process are at first very unmusical; while those which, being undirected by the mind spring right from the emotions, are, from the first, of the best quality. The voice of one who is studious, thoughtful, cool, philosophic, unless he have an endowment of emotionality unusual in such a nature, is usually dry, colorless, or harsh; while an impulsive, enthusiastic, gushing creature, even one with whom intellectuality is conspicuously absent, generally has excellent vocal tones. I have heard anarchy advocated in rich, mellow tones, and I have heard christianity preached in hard, monotonous accents. The socialist could not have reasoned clearly upon the simplest abstract proposition, and had not intelligence enough to see even the difficulty of his problem; but he felt deeply. The preacher, on the other hand, was probably a great wrangler in the intellectual arena. At all events, to him the scheme of salvation was shown by the quality of his voice to be interesting mainly as a proposition for debate. The young woman, whose mental culture has as yet made no inroads upon her love of dress—there are a few such left—will thank her mamma for a love of a bonnet in tones so sparkling, so exquisitely melodious, with inflections so charmingly modulated, as to put to shame all physiological, mechanical, and acoustical knowledge. Let all known facts in these departments be applied to the same voice without the bonnet, and its charm is gone; at least, until a long course shall have given the singer the artist's power of expressing emotion. (Any teacher, who, to develop his pupil's best tones shall now conclude to furnish some new article of millinery at each lesson is welcome to the above suggestion.) Here then is a piece of mechanism composed of a dozen or more features, which may combine in an infinite number of ways, but which for singing must be taught to cooperate in a certain way; these parts are but very indirectly within the scope of the intelligence; yet to make a system of instruction, the intelligence must explore the whole process. The voice naturally has a sort of feminine uncertainty and coyness in the presence of the intelligence; but will, so to speak, fly to the arms of impulse. Voice students are misled by their own sensations, confused by contradictory experiences, and harassed by conservative criticism, which practically says that all this effort to advance is a mistake, and that ruin must follow any departure from the ways of the ancients; which ways, however, though many pretend to understand, nobody can define. Is not that a hopeful subject for a pedagogic system? All other departments in music are child's play compared to it. Of course, it has been from the vocalists that all systems of voice culture have come. Now, one who excels as a singer is likely by nature to be averse to scientific, logical thought and patient work among dry details. He is disposed more toward an imaginative, poetical view of things, and toward impulsive, erratic action. A remarkably difficult problem has been given to people who as a class were especially unfitted to solve it. As might have been expected, ignorance and charlatanry have run riot in matters of voice culture. Instead of investing the small accumulations of experience in a general fund, the professors have either buried these in a stocking; or, ignoring them, have joined in a crazy search for the philosopher's stone, as a means of becoming rich in vocal resources. A sort of pseudo-science has blinded many of even the more intelligent students of the subject.

Now, if after all this, I pretend to give you some true principles of voice culture, shall I appear to assume too much? One article in my creed you may consider somewhat lax, but it gives me an advantage over both the stern casuists and the improvident seers of the profession: I classify facts in the same catagory with umbrellas and lead pencils; they practically belong to whoever finds them lying about. As to umbrellas and lead pencils, I have suffered much for my convictions; but regarding facts I have profited enormously. Facts of science, facts of philosophy, and facts of experience I have accumulated with a profusion impossible to one more scrupulously conscientious as to ownership, or less prosaically industrious. My slender claim to authority is based upon the impartiality with which I lay hands upon everything I can find, and in that I have prudence enough not to claim important originality as inventor or discoverer. A prominent Southern lawyer who found evidence piling up against his client, said to the judge, "Your Honor, there is nothing so misleading as facts!" That strikes me as a really profound remark. Multitudes of singers have been misled by vocal methods founded upon single facts, and named perhaps the "Smythe" method, the "De Browne" method, or the "Jonesini" method. What we want is the Creator's method. We want all truths, but with relationships, subordinations, deductions. The orchestra has been tuning up long enough—pouring forth a profusion of experimental tones. Now we want to hear a tune.

I will not attempt at this time to play a symphony; but will give you, as it were, a few themes suitable to children's voices.

The attributes of tones are length, pitch, quality, and power. To train a voice is simply to give it the mastery of these tone characteristics. There are three departments of mechanical action.

First, the breathing apparatus, upon which the duration or length of vocal sound mainly depends; second, the larynx containing the vocal cords, which are responsible for pitch; third, the pharynx and mouth, which constitute what I will call the sound tube, from whose varying action we get changes in quality, including vowel sounds. Power of tone is according to cooperation in these mechanical departments.

To make the idea of this clearer, think of the three factors in cornet playing: First, the breath; second, the elastic lips for vibration, and third, the sound tube.

There is "music in the air," and when the horn-player or the singer wishes to make it manifest, he takes the air into his lungs, forces it from the lungs through the closely adjusted lips (in the one case, lips of the mouth, and in the other, lips of the glottis), and then shapes the resulting vibrations in a tube. The length or continuity of the sound is according to the amount of breath taken and the management of it; the pitch, be it steady or various, is according to the adjustment of the vibrating lips; the quality is according to the management of the sound tube, and the degree of power is according to the combination of vocal factors.

As to the details of training in these departments, we often hear a person beg the whole question in the *ad captandum* remark, "Don't bother about your diaphragm or your larynx,—just sing naturally!"

As no voice has at first the sustaining power, and compass, and resonance, and quality to make singing what it should be, one must, I regret to say, "bother" awhile in these departments, one or more of which will certainly be deficient, before his habits are such that he can "just sing naturally," and at the same time acceptably. To see that something besides the natural action of the vocal organs is required for artistic vocalization, let us take a few examples.

In ordinary breathing we inhale slowly and exhale quickly with a sense of relaxing. For vocalization we must reverse this. One must inhale quickly and exhale slowly, with resistance to relaxation.

Ordinary speech allows of natural breathing.

Oratory goes beyond what is natural into what must be acquired.

Singing draws upon all resources, including that most difficult one of compressing the lungs to get the residual breath that never comes naturally.

In meeting this notion that no one can do better than sing naturally, we may also notice, that the natural or speaking pitch of the voice averages from a fifth to an octave below the necessary average of the same voice in song singing: "O, God, have mercy!" etc. These high pitches are natural in shouting, but not with a good singing tone. In the matter of quality, which is closely related to pitch, we find that, to run no risk of shouting, or throaty, or muffled, or gutteral, or nasal tones, especially upon high pitches, careful training of the sound tube is necessary. This is called "placing the voice."

Neither is acceptable power in tone natural; it is the result of skill in combining breath management with proper adjustment of the parts above.

Children's voices have generally been either neglected or abused in school work; but now, I rejoice to say, they are receiving from educators a careful attention. Mr. Wm. L. Tomlins who has, I suppose, been more largely instrumental than any one else in accelerating this happy consummation throughout the country, is to address you upon the subject; so it might be more becoming for me to keep silent upon it. However, I think Mr. Tomlins and I are substantially in accord upon main points. The subject is, as I have shown, a broad and somewhat intricate one, which will bear a great deal of elucidation; hence, I allow myself the pleasure of contributing my mite toward so excellent a work. Then, too, my classes include many public school teachers, the one before you being half made up of ladies who, under Mr. Blackman, are using my instructions for the benefit of the children of this city; I will assume that that constitutes a respectable claim to speak.

I have the idea that much of the breathing work that children are made to do is unnecessary. The proper duration of tones in singing is secured less certainly by crowding the lungs with air, than by managing well a smaller amount of breath. If the doctors insist that children who run and play out of doors do not get exercise enough for the health of their lungs, then the exaggerated breathing, which in classes they are often made to do, is perhaps necessary. It may be useful for health or amusement, or discipline, but I can't see in it the least benefit for singing.

Managing a very full breath, so that the tone shall be as musical and the phrase as smooth as when the lungs are more comfortably filled, is one of the consummate accomplishments of the artist.

Children won't take the pains to do this habitually, even if they be taught how.

It seems to me that about all the separate breathing practice that young children can use to advantage is the quick, noiseless inhalation of a moderate amount of breath, and the slow exhalation of it in a hissing sound, perhaps, or with the alphabet, or by counting, or while holding a tone softly; all desirable habits in phrasing naturally follow by proper degrees.

Pitch of tone involves the most important thing that can be done for children's voices. Under this head comes the subject of registers or changes in quality of vocal sound, caused by a curious adjustability of the vocal cords or lips. The prevailing idea that varying tension of the vocal cords makes the differences in the pitch of voice, needs modifying. The vocal cords are somewhere from a half inch to an inch in length. The absurdity of thinking that a ligament of that length can by mere tension make a difference of from two to three octaves is apparent. No known substance could stand any such strain. But nature provides that these cords or lips shall adjust themselves, so that with each higher pitch less substance may be in vibration, just as the lips of the horn-player vibrate loosely and thickly for low tones, but are so held by muscular adjustment, that for higher ones there is less substance free to vibrate.

Take the mouth-piece of a trombone, and you will find that by various contortions of your lips adjusted upon it, you can sound the scale or play a tune. You probably will not make enchanting music, but by that means you will be able to see clearly, that while vibrating lips make various pitches through tension, that tension should result in regulating the quantity of vibratory substance, more than in what we observe when a piano string is tuned to a higher note.

Now the vocal lips with children, to the age of ten or twelve, are so flexible, that they can sound over an octave with little or no readjustment, by mere tension. Until latterly, they have been made to sing in this way, because the telling reediness of the young child's voice is agreeable, much more so than the breathy sound of tone coming with first efforts at readjustment. This reedy sound is named "chest voice" or "register," and its proper limit is F or G. The chest voice was, and sometimes is even now, forced up to D or E, or even F. This can be done easily at the age of from six to eight, but it requires more and more throat effort as the vocal organs increase in size, until at last it results in harshness of tone, flatting from pitch, and cramping of the throat. At this most critical point the pupil was often urged to redoubled effort, hoping thus to get the tone out freely and keep the voice up to pitch. When, toward maturity, the full size of the larynx was reached, and the throat could no longer endure such outrage, the voice was practically ruined. In such cases the head or upper register might be seen to be five to ten years behind the chest in cultivation, and consequently very weak. The abnormal use of the chest register would have made its legitimate compass unmusical, and induced a strong habit of throat cramping, such as to render well nigh impossible the strengthening of the true higher register, the smoothing of the lower, and the uniting of the two. When girls of this class come to maturity. the higher notes of the compass appear. But such is the acquired throat action, that these are piercing and false. Throat affections often have their origin here. With correct training all throats are strengthened. The wrong vocal action vitiates the æsthetic perceptions, and even the ear for pitch.

At the East a short time since, I was present at the exhibition in music of a large number of school children. The sight reading was admirable, but the singing so bad that, if it were not improved, I would banish music from those schools. No two tones of a piece had correct musical relationship; all was flat and false from beginning to end, not from faulty ear but from faulty vocalization. It is much more natural for children to sing in tune than not. At any rate, I cannot remember ever having heard a child sing out of tune, when singing alone, if it had the average musical ear and normal throat. Let them be taught properly in this matter of cordal adjustment, and the gain to intonation is as great as to ease of tone production and to health of throat. I have occasion to examine the vocal status of about three hundred adults a year. The proportion of these that are suffering in some degree from wrong treatment in the matter of register is overwhelming. Within the next decade I look to see this changed for the better.

I will emphasize only one other point; and that relates to the third department of mechanical action, the sound tube.

The subject of emotional utterance comes in here. That I will leave to Mr. Tomlins. I will touch only upon verbal utterance.

Singing affords the best means in existence for mastering the pronunciation of language. At least it makes greater demands upon one than even oratory.

If I would describe something, speaking, like this: "The light is," etc., I may slight every one of the more difficult sounds, as b, d, g, z, v, etc., yet make my words so clear that my delinquencies will not be noticed. But not so in singing. The pressure of necessity for absolute exactness in enunciation is therefore removed from all but musical utterance. The best orators are thorough in this matter; but all singers *must* be so, if they would be understood. Children can make all the sounds of language easily enough. The problem with them is to make them think of each one as they sing. I recommend phonetic spelling for this purpose. As to power of tone, it should come last even with adults in the order of voice culture. Where loudness is urged upon children, it hinders or destroys nearly all other desirable elements of voice. Let them sing softly or with very moderate force.

I don't know whether all things the child learns at school might be so taught as to seem easy and natural, but voice culture certainly can.

If a man, on arriving in some foreign country, takes the grammar of its language, and goes laboriously and bunglingly to work with outrageous accent to make, in that tongue, all sorts of improbable statements about the joiner's hammer, or the beautiful broom of the good neighbor, he will tell you truly that the language is difficult to learn. But let his boy play marbles and tops awhile with the small natives, and the first you know, the youngster will have picked up the whole thing, slang and all, without suspecting its difficulty.

An adult's faculties live in the walled cities of habit. To bring them out where grow the flowers of song, he generally has to lay a siege—ram's horns and a procession seven times round won't help him get at them to subjugate them—he has to get out the battering rams, and at last collar one after another of his faculties and drag them to the meadows. So voice culture, to one who has first established himself in wrong habits, is the complicated subject I have shown it to be. But the children live in the meadows and on the hillside; you have only to indicate where the flowers grow and they troop after them. Just indicate to them where to go for the best.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE TONIC SOL FA METHOD.

BY DANIEL BACHELOR, PHILADELPHIA.

The educational value of music is getting to be more widely recognized each year. The fact that the National Educational Association has organized a department for music is, in itself, enough to show that our leading educators now regard singing as an essential part of the public school training.

If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing well. The practical question now is, What is the best method of teaching the children to sing? The answer which will sooner or later be given is this: That method will be used which is found to set forth most clearly the essential principles of music, and to develop them in their natural order. In this, as in everything else, there will be a survival of the fittest.

As a step toward this desired end, I ask you to consider with me some of the advantages of the Tonic Sol Fa method. It is not necessary to explain in detail the history of this remarkable movement, for you are already familiar with its leading features. Summed up briefly it runs thus: A musical movement 'was started half a century ago. From an obscure beginning, with no' advantage but its own inherent vitality, it struggled on for a number of years, steadily won its way into popular favor, and at last compelled government recognition, notwithstanding professional and official prejudice. Tonic sol fa has not only assumed national proportions in Great Britain, but is being used in every quarter of the globe. Nor has its internal development been less wonderful. Crude and imperfect at first, it has grown by a process of natural selection more and more complete, until now even those who take exception to its notation, bear testimony to the soundness and proper arrangement of its principles. Mr. Luther W. Mason, a competent authority, says, "It is the most symmetrically developed of any system of musical education with which I am acquainted."

Of course, the tonic sol fa movement is only one chapter in the history of the world's musical development. Like all other things, it is subject to the law of growth and decay.

"Our little systems have their day,
They have their day, and cease to be."

But it says something for the vitality of this system, that, after half a century's vigorous growth, it does not show any signs of having yet reached its full maturity. The latest reports from the central college show more elasticity and vigor than ever. According to the secretary's report, "The number of certificates issued during the year has been 22,279. The total for six years past is 101,889, giving an average of 16,980. It will thus be seen that the present year is very much beyond the average." He also reports that "the progress is more marked in our public elementary schools than in any other department of work. * * * We find school managers and school boards everywhere making inquiries as to the tonic sol fa method in schools." It has been taught in the London schools for fifteen years. It is so popular that out of the 1,113 schools at present under the management of the London school board, 1,112 are taught by this method. There are but two special teachers appointed by the board; and as there are 380,000 children in the schools to be instructed, the work must be done chiefly by the regular teachers; yet the superintendent reports that in the past year, all of the schools earned the full grant from the education department for singing, with the exception of one small girls' school. Such a result as this would be impossible if the method were not based upon educational principles. It is worth while to look into this matter more closely.

Mr. Curwen, the founder of the tonic sol fa method, has laid down certain educational axioms for the teacher's guidance, such as the following: One thing at a time, the easy before the difficult, the elemental before the compound, the thing before the sign, and to each thing a distinct sign. Let each step, as far as possible, rise out of that which goes before, and lead up to that which comes after. These maxims are familiar to every good teacher. But Mr. Curwen has done more than to tabulate a set of good rules which may be read,—and neglected. With rare perseverance and skill, he has embodied them in the prescribed "steps" of the tonic sol fa method, so that no teacher can disregard them without showing inexcusable carelessness or perversity. It must not be supposed from this that the system is so cut and dried as to destroy the originality of the teacher, and to place all the instruction upon a dead level of sameness. On the contrary, knowing just the thing to be presented, and understanding its relation to what has gone before and what will come after, the teacher's energy and skill are concentrated upon the manner of its presentation. Thus an enthusiasm is kindled in his own mind as well as in that of the pupils, and there is no lack of live teaching.

It is not my purpose to describe the tonic sol fa method. Those who wish to see an outline of the order of teaching will find it in the pamphlets which have been printed for the purpose of giving information. But I would like to say a few words upon the principles which govern the selection of our topics in teaching.

The simplest classification shows that in musical study there are two things to be taken account of, viz.: Tune, or the relation of tones to each other; and time, or the order of movement. In our tonic sol fa teaching, these two elements are kept distinct, although they are taught side by side, and of course are afterwards combined in forms of melody.

Very little needs to be said here about the teaching of time movement. The pupil's rhythmic sense is cultivated by observing the regular pulsation of the beats, or pulses, and their grouping into the two radical kinds of measure. When the vital sense of rhythm is established they are led on by degrees into what may be called the vito mathematical study of pulse divisions and groupings, until they become familiar with the most subtle forms of rhythmic beauty.

Our notation of time is simple. The relative length of the notes is shown by the relative space which they occupy. Thus if a one-pulse tone occupies a certain space, a two-pulse tone takes up twice that space, etc. The time notation also represents the various degrees of accent as well as duration, so that it is philosophical and complete.

In presenting the subject of tune, the teacher has to start from the foundation principle,—to take hold upon the "enlightening fact" which will naturally lead up to all other facts of tune. "Mere orderliness does not make a true method. What we have to search for is not merely some method, but the right method, a method guided by some principal fact which bears the strongest relationships to the other facts." This central fact is found in the principal of key-relationship; that is, the organic relation of tones to each other, and their subordination to a governing or key-tone. The recognition of this key-tone is the natural starting-point in the study of tune. When any tone is established in the mind as a key-tone, it has the power of calling out other tones which are in sympathy with it, or with its allies. But there is an educational order in the development of these tones. The first to respond to the call of the key-tone (*doh*) is that which is known as its fifth (*sol*). Physical science shows that the latter is more closely related to the key-tone than any other tone of the scale, having a large proportion of coincident vibrations. In connection with the key-tone and fifth, the ear naturally selects the third (*me*), and thus we get the first harmonious group or chord. This is our first step in teaching tune,—to get the ear attuned to these harmonious relations, which are the same in all keys,—before any foreign tone, with its possibilities of discord, is introduced.

In the second step, the attention is called to the manner in which the fifth (*sol*) calls out two allied tones (*ray* and *te*), making a second harmonious group, which, although just as perfect in itself, holds a subordinate relation to the first, or tonic group.

The third step shows us how the key-tone calls out also its under-fifth (*fah*), which, with the under-third (*lah*) and tonic, constitutes the third group. Thus we get the foundations of harmony as well as of melody securely laid.

When the tone relations are evolved in this natural order, two things must impress the thoughtful mind: First, the wonderful mathematical instinct which enables the ear to register the rapid number of tone vibrations, and to connect those tones which have the greatest number of coincident waves; secondly, that universal law of sympathy, which everywhere makes like answer to like. We see it in music no less than in chemistry. Do not the tones seek out their kindred tones, and, so to speak, crystallize themselves into chords? One practical advantage of learning the tones in this way is, that the ear is cultivated to a sense of perfect tune, and has a self-tuning power, without being dependent upon musical instruments.

When we fit together the tones of the three great chords in the order of their relative pitch, we get a smooth run of melody which is called the scale, or ladder of tones. Singing the scale is commonly regarded as the starting-point in tune, very much as repeating the alphabet used to be thought the proper thing as a preparation for reading. The scale is not a simple unit, as it is sometimes represented to be; for whether regarded from the mathematical or musical point of view, it is found to be highly complex, containing all possibilities of harmony and of discord.

When the chordal structure of the scale has been studied, the mutual relation of the tones is much better understood, and we are prepared to analyze the individual tone perceptions. Our first impression of the scale is that the tones are very much alike, except that they grow brighter as we ascend. But a closer observation reveals many points of difference between them. It is like being introduced to a family, where the first thing that impresses us is the family likeness running throughout; but upon further acquaintance we begin to note points of difference between the brothers and sisters, and mentally divide them into groups. As by degrees we become more intimate with the family, the separate individuality of each member stands out, and if we compare one with another, it is only to observe their different characteristics. So in the study of the musical scale, a slight examination shows that the tones of the central group—*d*, *m*, and *s*—have a firm, restful effect, while the other four have a leaning attitude, and gravitate toward one or the other of the resting or "pillar" tones. But the resting tones are not alike. They differ in kind and degree. Again, we must divide the four leaning tones into two groups; two of them are gently dependent, while the other two lean strongly toward their resting places. These two tones which are drawn with greater force are found to be situated nearer to their centre of gravity than those which have a more languid movement, an interesting fact

which goes to show that the law of attractional gravitation governs tones as well as material bodies. The strongly gravitating tones are easily recognized by the mental emotional tension which we experience when listening to them. They are exactly opposite in their tendency, the one gravitating upward to *doh*, and the other downward to *me*. The upward gravitation of *se* is well suited to express eager desire, while *fah* as naturally expresses awe, foreboding, or desolation.

Time will not allow us to analyze the mental effect of all the tones of the scale, but enough has been said to show that tone differs from tone as much as color from color. In our tonic sol fa teaching, the ear is trained to recognize these differences, so that children can as readily determine the nature of tones through the ear, as they can that of colors through the eye.

The educational value of this process can scarcely be overestimated. It imparts to the ear a power of subtle discrimination. The comparison of these tone effects also cultivates the taste of the children, and quickens the imagination as few other subjects of study can do. Nor is this matter of tone study an abstruse process to children. My own experience has been that they grasp the subject far more readily than adults. With their strong make-believe instinct they almost unconsciously personify the mental impressions of tone. This can be done in many ways; but the plan which I have found most successful is to represent the tones of the scale as a musical family. After suggesting the general idea, I have generally found the children would work it out somewhat as follows: *Doh*, with its firm, solid strength, is the father. *Me*, the tone of calm and gentle sympathy, is the mother. Clear joyous *Sol* is the big brother, always ready to help father and mother. His younger brother *Fah* is of a very different disposition; gloomy and despondent, given to looking on the dark side of things, the children at first have not much liking for him. I well remember, though, the little girl, who said that she did not think he could be all bad, because he was so fond of his mother *Me*! Then there is the elder sister *Lah*, who seems to be of a complaining nature, and prone to tears. The children do not understand the cause of her sorrow, although they can trace her influence in minor music. They have more liking for her younger sister *Ray*. It is true that her affection for both parents makes her sometimes seem undecided as to which she shall turn, but they soon discover that she is not lacking in will and energy on proper occasions. But the children's favorite is the baby *Se*; they delight to hear his shrill cry as he tries to get to his father *Doh*. Thus each tone becomes a personality, subject to changing moods and conditions, but never mistaken for any other tone.

This sympathetic study of tones produces a noticeable effect on young voices. Such remarks as this are often made: "I know nothing of the

tonic sol fa system, but my children sing in tune, and with true expression."

When the character and mutual relationship of the tones has been thoroughly realized, the pupils follow with intelligent interest the transitions, or temporary changes of key, which often occur in the course of tunes. For instance, a lesson in transition was being taught to some children to whom the musical family was a familiar idea. The nature of a sharp transition was being shown, viz.: that the fifth of the old key becomes the new key-tone. "Oh, I see!" said a bright child, "*Sol* has got married, and now he is a father." The others soon caught the idea, and no sooner was the piercing effect of the new sharp tone heard than it was hailed as the cry of the "baby" in the new family. Again, when they come to the study of minor music—which to the majority of singers is a puzzle—they experience no perplexity of mind. In the tonic sol fa presentation of music, the minor mode can never for an instant be confused with a change of key in the major. It is seen to be only another mode of using the one scale of nature, so that the centre of gravity is now found in the tone *lah* instead of *doh*. They see that the minor imitates the major in a shadowy sort of way. Even little children in the kindergarten are interested in what they call "shadow music;" and upon hearing a melodic phrase in the major, they will give its counterpart in the relative minor.

Thus the children grow to understand music as a living language instead of a mechanical series of sounds. To them it is the natural expression of emotional activity, as words are the natural expression of thought action. Under any conditions, music must be a powerful agent in moral training, but its influence for good will be more strong and far-reaching when it is understood as a tone language.

Although moral culture is the chief end of music, we must not overlook the fact that it is also an important aid to intellectual culture. To reach its fullest development, the mind needs training in two directions—the mathematical and the æsthetic. At first these seem somewhat antagonistic. We are apt to think of a thorough mathematician as unmusical, and of a musical genius as probably deficient in mathematics. But the antagonism is only apparent. We do not get far into our musical studies before we find ourselves engaged in solving mathematical problems; while on the other hand, as we approach the higher mathematics, a spirit of poetry or music seems to pervade the beautiful results at which we arrive. The history of education shows that music and mathematics have always gone hand in hand, each serving to interpret and develop the other. Does not this point to the conclusion that intellectual culture demands mental activity in both of these directions? The mind which is trained only from the mathematical standpoint is in danger of being narrowed down to a calculating machine. Few persons realize how subtle and varied are the mental processes demanded by an intelligent study of music, probably because they do not see evidences of mental strain. Mathematics gives brain work; music gives brain play. But the latter is none the less a source of mental development. Science teaches that at no other time of our life does the brain grow at such an enormous rate as during the period of childhood's play. Yet there is no conscious effort there. It is nature's method of teaching, and music is akin to play. It cultivates the imagination by leading the mind to delight in the beauties of rhythm, melody and harmony; but this exercise, instead of exhausting the mental faculties, only serves to give new strength and elasticity to the brain, thus enabling it to do its other work the more easily. Let music and mathematics go side by side. When the children find applied mathematics in music, they will also begin to perceive music embodied in mathematics. A mind thus trained to see an intimate connection between the beautiful and the useful will gain a broader understanding of how things are related one to another, and a healthy sentiment which will throw a halo of poetry around the common duties and cares of life.

To return to the subject of the tonic sol fa method of teaching music, it is necessary here to say something about the musical signs which we use, for that seems to be the chief stumbling-block to musicians. They admit that the principles of the method are sound; but, they ask, "Why use a different notation from that which has been in use for many generations past?" A simple statement of our position is the best answer to this question.

The tonic sol fa method aims to present the principles of music in their natural order, without ambiguity or needless complexity. It purposes to make the language of music intelligible to the people at large, instead of having it confined to the few who possess special musical gifts. In brief, its object is to make all the people sing with heart and understanding.

Its attitude is not antagonistic to any other system, but supplementary, since it strives to accomplish the work which has been left undone. Then why did it not use the notation which was ready to its hand? Because for the tonic sol fa purpose—that is, a clear and simple presentation of the truths of music—that notation was found to be unworkable. It violated some of the fundamental principles of education. For example, the first principle in music is the mental conception of the key-tone, which is essentially the same thing under all conditions. Now, instead of giving us one clear unmistakable sign for this, the staff notation gives us several signs. And so with all the other tones of the scale. The location of the notes in one tune is no criterion of where the corresponding notes will be found in the next tune to be sung. To the ear, the scale association of tones is the same in all cases; but the eye has to form a different picto-

rial association for every new key. This complex representation of a simple thing may not give much trouble when one comprehends it; but it is certainly not an educational way of presenting the subject to a beginner. But worse than having many signs for one thing is the ambiguity of the symbols used. Thus, that which represents the key-tone in one case stands for the fifth of the scale on another occasion, and yet again for the fourth, or some other tone. That is to say, the same sign is used to represent entirely different mental impressions, and it is impossible to know the meaning of the symbol unless we bear in mind other modifying circumstances. A parallel case would be to have to teach mathematics in such a way that the figures or the signs are interchangeable, and their meaning only ascertainable by referring to certain arbitrary conditions under which they are used. In advanced music the ambiguity becomes much more serious; but we are now speaking only of elementary work. This is not intended as an attack on the staff notation—our attitude towards that will be explained presently—but to show the need of a simpler set of musical signs for teaching purposes. That this need does exist, and that it is felt by teachers of the staff, is also shown by the fact that staff teachers generally employ numerals or some other device to make the tone characters plain to their pupils in the early stages.

The well-known sol fa tone names, which had been in use for centuries, were found to answer the purpose of the tonic sol fa method, and so with a few necessary modifications they were retained. The simplest way of noting the musical tones that suggested itself was just to write down the name, or rather its initial letter, thus: *d, r, m, f, s, l, t, d'*. The notes are the same for every key. The pitch of the key-tone is stated in the clearest manner at the beginning of the tune, thus: "*Doh* is C," or "*doh* is G." This simple form of notation does away at once with cleffs, key-signatures, and the whole machinery of "transposition of keys." Yet it tells the singer in the most direct way all that he needs to know. It is just as simple as music itself. A tune may be sung in every possible key, and the ear will recognize the same succession of musical tones in it, that is, it is the same tune. In the tonic sol fa notation, the eye sees the same succession of letter-notes in whatever key the tune has to be sung, so that eye and ear work together to convey to the mind the tune idea. Dr. John Stainer puts this point very strongly. He says: "For example, suppose I write a piece in the key of C; but, on trial, I think it not quite bright enough, and rewrite it in C sharp. The singers have precisely the same parts to sing, they are only slightly altered in pitch—so slightly that probably not one in a hundred observes it; yet, in the staff notation, I have taken them from the simplest known key into one which has seven sharps in the signature, involving double sharps and all kinds of abstruse signs in modulating. What have the poor singers done, that

they should, because singing my work a mere trifle higher in pitch, be dragged from the pure sunlight of the key of C into the tangled mazes of seven-sharps-C and its related keys? The tonic sol-faist does not play singers such a mean trick as this; he merely puts his pen through the expression 'key of C' and writes 'key of C sharp' in its place; all his letter notation remains precisely what it was before."

The tonic sol fa notation encounters plenty of opposition from musicians, who have a natural prejudice in favor of the notation to which they have always been accustomed. It is the vehicle through which they have received the noble ideas of the great masters of musical art. Their love of music involves an affection for the notation,—the material form in which it has been enshrined. Their sympathies are enlisted in the matter, and the feelings are always conservative; hence they have an instinctive aversion to any new mode of representation. This feeling gradually wears away as they find that the new is not iconoclastic,—not a sweeping away of the old foundations; but an evolution,—a necessary phase of musical progress,

"The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways."

The only specific objection which is generally urged against the tonic sol fa notation is that it is "horizontal," meaning that it does not picture the rise and fall of the tones. We might retort with "*et tu quoque!*" The staff notation attempts to show how the tones go up and down; but it certainly does not give a *true* picture of pitch, since the same space is used for a minor, a major, a diminished, or an augmented interval. Nobody will suppose that Dr. Stainer is prejudiced against the staff, and yet these are his words: "In the staff system intervals become stumbling-blocks to singers, because their exact size depends not only upon a vivid remembrance of the scale of the original key-signature, but upon the counter-orders issued by accidentals, which may at any moment themselves be countermanded by signs fetched from the signature for the purpose."

But we have a more satisfactory answer than that of turning our opponent's objection into a boomerang. The tonic sol fa method does give a true idea of pitch. Our modulator is an exact picture of the scale intervals. It shows in the clearest manner the position of tones in key, and the relation of keys to each other. The pupil's attention is constantly directed to this modulator. He sees it grow, as step by step something new is added to it, until at length it not only hangs complete before him, but there is also a mental image of it formed within him. This true concept of the relative position of the scale tones forms a background to the notation, and furnishes an unerring guide to the rise and fall of the tones.

The picture is not on the printed page but in the singer's mind. It is the same with musical notes as with words. For example, d-o-g is not a pictorial representation of an animal, but it calls up in the mind the concept of a dog. So too, the words *mountain* and *valley* may be printed side by side in a horizontal line, but we do not, therefore, conceive of them as a level plain. All educators will agree that that form of notation is the best which most readily and certainly calls up the mental concepts. Judged by this standard, the tonic sol fa notation has nothing to fear.

So much for theory. A practical answer to the objection we have been considering is, that tonic sol-faists have never experienced any difficulty in singing from their horizontal notation; and surely none but a musical Rip Van Winkle would think of denying their ability to sing the correct intervals with readiness.

There seems to be a general impression that the tonic sol fa method may do for elementary work, but that it is not suitable for advanced musical study. Let us examine the facts of the case. The tonic sol fa college has provided a graded series of certificates to mark off the progress of its students. The first or junior certificate is simple enough to be taken by children in the primary school; the next is somewhat more difficult; and so they go on in progressive order. The matriculate certificate demands a fair degree of musical culture, including the power to sing difficult music at sight; to write down, upon hearing it, a melody containing change of key and modulation to the relative minor; to listen to four-part harmony, and write the melody and bass; to analyze a piece of harmony; to mark for expression, and sing a difficult part-song; and to show some degree of voice cultivation. The last report showed that more than 4,400 of these certificates had been issued. The advanced certificate demands considerably higher musicianship than this, and 600 of these have been issued.

Another evidence of the progressiveness of tonic sol fa work is found in the fact that nearly all of the oratorios, masses, and other classics are printed in the tonic sol fa notation, and are extensively used in choral societies. In Dundee, Scotland, the school children performed the oratorios "Messiah" and "Elijah," in a way that won high praise from the musical critics.

The progressive nature of tonic sol fa study seems a perfectly natural thing to those who are engaged in it. The real value of our principles and simple notation are more fully realized when the subject of music itself grows more complex and difficult. As each new thing is apprehended, it has its own sign set apart for it, and there is never the slightest doubt as to the nature of the difficulty before us. The problem is clearly stated and only needs to be solved. The simple mental process is a very different thing from having first to determine the nature of the signs before you can proceed to the solution of the problem. The further we go in musical study the more helpful do we find the tonic sol fa presentation of the subject. For instance, the study of harmony is generally spoken of as being very difficult; but in the tonic sol fa method, it only presents enough difficulty to give a pleasant stimulus to the mind; yet tonic sol-faists are noted among musical students for their thorough grasp of the subject.

Some of the charges brought against us are rather amusing, when considered from an educational point of view. We have been told that we teach tonic sol fa because we have not the ability to teach the staff. Well, allowing this to be true, is it not a great thing to have a system so simple, that even poor teachers can get such good results by it?

Then again, we are charged with making the study of music too easy, and so encouraging mental laziness on the part of our pupils. Probably the same cry was raised when first the Arabic figures were used, instead of the time-honored Roman numerals. That certainly did make the study of arithmetic easier, so easy indeed that everybody could learn it: but we have no evidence that it caused any deterioration of the human brain. The idea of making any subject of study too easy is to the educational mind utterly absurd. Is it not the aim of every teacher to simplify and make plain that which is abstruse or obscure? But there is a half-truth in this charge of making music easy for the learner. The statement of the whole truth would be this: By our simple methods of presentation we relieve the pupil of much mental effort that would have to be given to the study of a more complicated set of musical signs, and so render it possible to give a larger share of attention to the study of music itself. Thus the amount of ability which is necessary to a proper understanding of elementary music as taught by the staff will serve the tonic sol-faist for music of intermediate difficulty; and for the same reason the intermediate student with the staff has to put forth as much effort as the advanced student in tonic sol fa. The result is seen in the greater progressiveness of our students as a body.

So far, we have been considering tonic sol fa as a system complete in itself. My main purpose has been to show that it is in the truest sense an educational system, and that it is in line with the best methods of school teaching. In order to show its advantages I have had to compare it with the generally accepted methods of teaching by the staff, and in doing so, I may seem to have taken an antagonistic attitude towards the latter. To prevent any misapprehension on this point, let us in conclusion glance at the relation which exists between the two notations in England, where the experiment has been tested most thoroughly. For half a century the tonic sol fa movement has steadily pursued its course. During that period it has not materially changed except in more perfect development. But the attitude of the musical leaders toward it is entirely different from what it was. At first they despised and disliked it; now they respect and admire it. Instead of dreading it as an opponent, they now welcome it as a strong ally.

The evidence of our tonic sol fa certificates shows that a large majority of the students voluntarily pass the prescribed staff notation requirements. Some years ago, the president of the tonic sol fa college made this public statement: "Experience has shown that we are making more good staff readers in England than all other systems put together." Nobody ventured to dispute the assertion then, and it might be stated with much greater force at the present time.

In the June number of the *Tonic Sol Fa Reporter*, the following testimony is quoted from Mr. John Evans, inspector of music in the London schools: "Many of the schools are teaching staff notation very successfully in the higher singing classes (in addition to sol fa), and the teachers are astonished to find how easily and quickly the children learn to sing from the staff after their sol fa training."

Dr. John Hullah was always a bitter opponent of tonic sol fa; and yet during the nine years that he conducted the London society of arts examinations in the theory of music, ten out of the thirteen prize takers were found to be tonic sol-faists. This seems to bear out the emphatic words of Dr. Stainer, who said, when addressing a meeting of teachers: "You need have no fear of the ultimate results, for I never in my life met with an intelligent tonic sol-faist who was not just as good a reader of the staff notation as of tonic sol fa."

The latest phase of this question is shown in a letter we have just received from Mr. Curwen, the president of the Tonic Sol Fa College in London. He says: "At present the education department does not enforce the staff notation at all, but they will do so, I hope ultimately, in the highest standards. Many of our London board schools are, however, using the old notation voluntarily, and doing so most successfully. I have heard difficult tests sung at sight from the staff, and I have seen ear exercises written directly into the old notation, in time and tune, on being played." After speaking of having instituted more severe tests in the staff notation than were formerly required, he adds; "This change shows the determination of our college to make a thorough study of the old notation a necessary thing for all our students."

I will quote but one other testimony. Dr. Root, who saw much of the tonic sol-faists in London last summer, writes thus in the *Musical Visitor*: "Right here let me say that if any one has an impression that these tonic sol fa people and their accomplished teachers do not know the

which goes to show that the law of attractional gravitation governs tones as well as material bodies. The strongly gravitating tones are easily recognized by the mental emotional tension which we experience when listening to them. They are exactly opposite in their tendency, the one gravitating upward to *doh*, and the other downward to *me*. The upward gravitation of *se* is well suited to express eager desire, while *fah* as naturally expresses awe, foreboding, or desolation.

Time will not allow us to analyze the mental effect of all the tones of the scale, but enough has been said to show that tone differs from tone as much as color from color. In our tonic sol fa teaching, the ear is trained to recognize these differences, so that children can as readily determine the nature of tones through the ear, as they can that of colors through the eye.

The educational value of this process can scarcely be overestimated It imparts to the ear a power of subtle discrimination. The comparison of these tone effects also cultivates the taste of the children, and quickens the imagination as few other subjects of study can do. Nor is this matter of tone study an abstruse process to children. My own experience has been that they grasp the subject far more readily than adults. With their strong make-believe instinct they almost unconsciously personify the mental impressions of tone. This can be done in many ways; but the plan which I have found most successful is to represent the tones of the scale as a musical family. After suggesting the general idea, I have generally found the children would work it out somewhat as follows: *Doh*, with its firm, solid strength, is the father. *Me*, the tone of calm and gentle sympathy, is the mother. Clear joyous *Sol* is the big brother, always ready to help father and mother. His younger brother *Fah* is of a very different disposition; gloomy and despondent, given to looking on the dark side of things, the children at first have not much liking for him. I well remember, though, the little girl, who said that she did not think he could be all bad, because he was so fond of his mother *Me*! Then there is the elder sister *Lah*, who seems to be of a complaining nature, and prone to tears. The children do not understand the cause of her sorrow, although they can trace her influence in minor music. They have more liking for her younger sister *Ray*. It is true that her affection for both parents makes her sometimes seem undecided as to which she shall turn, but they soon discover that she is not lacking in will and energy on proper occasions. But the children's favorite is the baby *Se*; they delight to hear his shrill cry as he tries to get to his father *Doh*. Thus each tone becomes a personality, subject to changing moods and conditions, but never mistaken for any other tone.

This sympathetic study of tones produces a noticeable effect on young voices. Such remarks as this are often made: "I know nothing of the

tonic sol fa system, but my children sing in tune, and with true expression."

When the character and mutual relationship of the tones has been thoroughly realized, the pupils follow with intelligent interest the transitions, or temporary changes of key, which often occur in the course of tunes. For instance, a lesson in transition was being taught to some children to whom the musical family was a familiar idea. The nature of a sharp transition was being shown, viz.: that the fifth of the old key becomes the new key-tone. "Oh, I see!" said a bright child, "*Sol* has got married, and now he is a father." The others soon caught the idea, and no sooner was the piercing effect of the new sharp tone heard than it was hailed as the cry of the "baby" in the new family. Again, when they come to the study of minor music—which to the majority of singers is a puzzle—they experience no perplexity of mind. In the tonic sol fa presentation of music, the minor mode can never for an instant be confused with a change of key in the major. It is seen to be only another mode of using the one scale of nature, so that the centre of gravity is now found in the tone *lah* instead of *doh*. They see that the minor imitates the major in a shadowy sort of way. Even little children in the kindergarten are interested in what they call "shadow music;" and upon hearing a melodic phrase in the major, they will give its counterpart in the relative minor.

Thus the children grow to understand music as a living language instead of a mechanical series of sounds. To them it is the natural expression of emotional activity, as words are the natural expression of thought action. Under any conditions, music must be a powerful agent in moral training, but its influence for good will be more strong and far-reaching when it is understood as a tone language.

Although moral culture is the chief end of music, we must not overlook the fact that it is also an important aid to intellectual culture. To reach its fullest development, the mind needs training in two directions—the mathematical and the æsthetic. At first these seem somewhat antagonistic. We are apt to think of a thorough mathematician as unmusical, and of a musical genius as probably deficient in mathematics. But the antagonism is only apparent. We do not get far into our musical studies before we find ourselves engaged in solving mathematical problems; while on the other hand, as we approach the higher mathematics, a spirit of poetry or music seems to pervade the beautiful results at which we arrive. The history of education shows that music and mathematics have always gone hand in hand, each serving to interpret and develop the other. Does not this point to the conclusion that intellectual culture demands mental activity in both of these directions? The mind which is trained only from the mathematical standpoint is in danger of being narrowed down to a calculating machine. Few persons realize how subtle and varied are the

which goes to show that the law of attractional gravitation governs tones as well as material bodies. The strongly gravitating tones are easily recognized by the mental emotional tension which we experience when listening to them. They are exactly opposite in their tendency, the one gravitating upward to *doh*, and the other downward to *me*. The upward gravitation of *se* is well suited to express eager desire, while *fah* as naturally expresses awe, foreboding, or desolation.

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rial association for every new key. This complex representation of a simple thing may not give much trouble when one comprehends it; but it is certainly not an educational way of presenting the subject to a beginner. But worse than having many signs for one thing is the ambiguity of the symbols used. Thus, that which represents the key-tone in one case stands for the fifth of the scale on another occasion, and yet again for the fourth, or some other tone. That is to say, the same sign is used to represent entirely different mental impressions, and it is impossible to know the meaning of the symbol unless we bear in mind other modifying circumstances. A parallel case would be to have to teach mathematics in such a way that the figures or the signs are interchangeable, and their meaning only ascertainable by referring to certain arbitrary conditions under which they are used. In advanced music the ambiguity becomes much more serious; but we are now speaking only of elementary work. This is not intended as an attack on the staff notation—our attitude towards that will be explained presently—but to show the need of a simpler set of musical signs for teaching purposes. That this need does exist, and that it is felt by teachers of the staff, is also shown by the fact that staff teachers generally employ numerals or some other device to make the tone characters plain to their pupils in the early stages.

The well-known sol fa tone names, which had been in use for centuries, were found to answer the purpose of the tonic sol fa method, and so with a few necessary modifications they were retained. The simplest way of noting the musical tones that suggested itself was just to write down the name, or rather its initial letter, thus: *d, r, m, f, s, l, t, d'*. The notes are the same for every key. The pitch of the key-tone is stated in the clearest manner at the beginning of the tune, thus: "*Doh* is C," or "*doh* is G." This simple form of notation does away at once with cleffs, key-signatures, and the whole machinery of "transposition of keys." Yet it tells the singer in the most direct way all that he needs to know. It is just as simple as music itself. A tune may be sung in every possible key, and the ear will recognize the same succession of musical tones in it, that is, it is the same tune. In the tonic sol fa notation, the eye sees the same succession of letter-notes in whatever key the tune has to be sung, so that eye and ear work together to convey to the mind the tune idea. Dr. John Stainer puts this point very strongly. He says: "For example, suppose I write a piece in the key of C; but, on trial, I think it not quite bright enough, and rewrite it in C sharp. The singers have precisely the same parts to sing, they are only slightly altered in pitch—so slightly that probably not one in a hundred observes it; yet, in the staff notation, I have taken them from the simplest known key into one which has seven sharps in the signature, involving double sharps and all kinds of abstruse signs in modulating. What have the poor singers done, that

mental processes demanded by an intelligent study of music, probably because they do not see evidences of mental strain. Mathematics gives brain work; music gives brain play. But the latter is none the less a source of mental development. Science teaches that at no other time of our life does the brain grow at such an enormous rate as during the period of childhood's play. Yet there is no conscious effort there. It is nature's method of teaching, and music is akin to play. It cultivates the imagination by leading the mind to delight in the beauties of rhythm, melody, and harmony; but this exercise, instead of exhausting the mental faculties, only serves to give new strength and elasticity to the brain, thus enabling it to do its other work the more easily. Let music and mathematics go side by side. When the children find applied mathematics in music, they will also begin to perceive music embodied in mathematics. A mind thus trained to see an intimate connection between the beautiful and the useful will gain a broader understanding of how things are related one to another, and a healthy sentiment which will throw a halo of poetry around the common duties and cares of life.

To return to the subject of the tonic sol fa method of teaching music, it is necessary here to say something about the musical signs which we use, for that seems to be the chief stumbling-block to musicians. They admit that the principles of the method are sound; but, they ask, "Why use a different notation from that which has been in use for many generations past?" A simple statement of our position is the best answer to this question.

The tonic sol fa method aims to present the principles of music in their natural order, without ambiguity or needless complexity. It purposes to make the language of music intelligible to the people at large, instead of having it confined to the few who possess special musical gifts. In brief, its object is to make all the people sing with heart and understanding.

Its attitude is not antagonistic to any other system, but supplementary, since it strives to accomplish the work which has been left undone. Then why did it not use the notation which was ready to its hand? Because for the tonic sol fa purpose—that is, a clear and simple presentation of the truths of music—that notation was found to be unworkable. It violated some of the fundamental principles of education. For example, the first principle in music is the mental conception of the key-tone, which is essentially the same thing under all conditions. Now, instead of giving us one clear unmistakable sign for this, the staff notation gives us several signs. And so with all the other tones of the scale. The location of the notes in one tune is no criterion of where the corresponding notes will be found in the next tune to be sung. To the ear, the scale association of tones is the same in all cases; but the eye has to form a different picto-

rial association for every new key. This complex representation of a simple thing may not give much trouble when one comprehends it; but it is certainly not an educational way of presenting the subject to a beginner. But worse than having many signs for one thing is the ambiguity of the symbols used. Thus, that which represents the key-tone in one case stands for the fifth of the scale on another occasion, and yet again for the fourth, or some other tone. That is to say, the same sign is used to represent entirely different mental impressions, and it is impossible to know the meaning of the symbol unless we bear in mind other modifying circumstances. A parallel case would be to have to teach mathematics in such a way that the figures or the signs are interchangeable, and their meaning only ascertainable by referring to certain arbitrary conditions under which they are used. In advanced music the ambiguity becomes much more serious; but we are now speaking only of elementary work. This is not intended as an attack on the staff notation—our attitude towards that will be explained presently—but to show the need of a simpler set of musical signs for teaching purposes. That this need does exist, and that it is felt by teachers of the staff, is also shown by the fact that staff teachers generally employ numerals or some other device to make the tone characters plain to their pupils in the early stages.

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cessive and wrongly-directed effort. This not only repels the listener, but really harms the singer, for it inflames and weakens the throat to an extent that invites disease.

Of the first two, it would be easy to show that, while the physical has its place in the vocal economy, it is generally developed at the expense, and, in many instances, to the exclusion of the better voice.

These three divisions we may class as gold, brass, and dross, standing for nobility, commonality, and vulgarity.

It is not necessary to dwell upon the last named. Of late years attention has been directed to its evils, and for the most part it has been frowned upon, and its use discouraged.

But it may be well to warn you that, while the brass is an advance upon mere dross, we must not overestimate its value, still less enthrone it. Brass is brass. We may polish it, may reduce its offensive disproportions, and shape it to the prevailing fashions; its nature is still brazen, still does it gravitate towards the dross.

There is in every voice a golden germ. Though small and weak from disuse, it still is there, the sign of individuality; and under exceptional conditions, such as overwhelming grief or alarm, when the inner self is awakened and the outer self subdued, it ventures to the fore; a puny, starved, and faltering voice, standing timidly alone, but truthful ands incere. This golden voice must be strengthened and encouraged; developed as to power and intensity of utterance; developed in completeness of expression; developed from the heart outwards, with "strength at the centre and freedom at the circumference," until it dominates the entire physical system; every fibre called into action; the very finger tips thrilled by the supreme influence of united and harmonious effort.

Physical tone adds but little to speech. Using only this voice I might as well communicate my thoughts to you through a third person or by letter. On the other hand, fervent voice represents a something which is not common property, and which cannot be conveyed through a third person, nor be put upon paper; it is the soul of speech, and so powerful that when used in opposition, it qualifies, may even contradict the affirmation of spoken words. For example:

This language of the self is a universal language; it may be used with speech or without it; it is more truthful than speech, and differs from speech in that it cannot be the language of mere mechanical utterance, for it demands the undivided attention of the speaker. Let my mind wander but for a moment while I am addressing you, and that instant you know my thoughts are absent; the soul of the voice goes away, and nothing but its physical frame remains. * * * *

You may imagine from this that I expect children to go through life in a kind of rapt attention, always nerved up. I don't expect any such thing. I contend, however, that there is far too little of this tension, and affirm that it may be developed not only in degree, but that being raised from attention to tension, we may reach on to powers of concentration.

I have taken classes of young children, and in connection with their vocal lesson, have brought them up to a point of absolute tension, holding them in that state for a short time, then letting them down again for a while, saying, "Children now be bad, if you wish." Of course, under such circumstances, if you tell children to be bad, they are not likely to be so, any more than they would be good for just such telling. But they indulged in a kind of make-believe badness which was delicious to witness. Then back to work and up to tension again.

The vigor and energy of our American life, combined with the confidence which is born of a sense of accomplishment in material things, make an imposing body of resources which is inherited by the children and of which they give early evidence: powers not to be trimmed down to primness and properness, but to be restrained only in essentials, and so guided that the very faults of impulsiveness may work for good.

It is hard at first to hold pupils in this semi-loose manner, to allow liberty and avoid license; but when they become accustomed to it, and when matters of interest claim their attention, the teacher's task is much lighter.

Some four years afterwards, a prominent educator in this city came to me to protest against the unnatural strain to which the older members of these same classes were subjected during one of their examinations. But he was speedily convinced that, although unusual, it was not unnatural, and that the weakness which the average pupil would manifest under like circumstances was a fact both humiliating and inexcusable.

There is no good reason for a condition of things, in which the rousing of one's individuality to meet a crisis is followed by nerve exhaustion and a degree of collapse.

That this is far too common is largely due to a system of education which fosters commonality and neglects personality.

I have said that the one element common to all the emotions is vitality. The feelings, emotions, passions, are all vital; and this vitality finds its vocal expression through that medium which most represents life, the breath. Vital tone, therefore, demands a continuous flow of breath; for there can be no passion without life, and no life without breath.

A madman, squandering his vitality, raves. An idiot only chatters.

Persons who are amazed to bewilderment, for the time lose motive power and incentive; of such persons we may say that "their breath is taken away."

Absent-mindedness also betrays itself in speech by a hesitant flow of the breath.

As the higher mission of life is to develop self and to help our fellows. so the noble voice must make for manhood and brotherhood, must recognize individuality and fellowship, must represent self-assertion and consideration for others.

More of the former makes for masculine tone, and more of the latter for feminine. But whatever be their relative proportions, both qualities are necessary and must always exist.

A voice all assertion would be objectionably masculine—*brutal*; and one all consideration and sympathy would be objectionably feminine—*effeminate*. These two extremes of voice are without use in the world.

In voice production, the assertive tone is secured by resisting the outgoing breath, partly imprisoning it in the throat, so that it has to make its way through parts which reluctantly permit its departure, by which process it becomes impregnated with the personality of those parts. On the other hand, the pathetic, feminine quality is represented by a flow of breath less restrained, and consequently less impregnated with the personality of the singer. The smile and the sigh, both of them feminine, are based upon fluent breath.

As masculine and feminine tones must always co-exist, so to the breath here must always be resistance and yielding elasticity. This is obtained by a species of throat control which takes the form of expansion instead of contraction. (Illustration.)

This question of throat resistance and control is disputed by some authorities. I have a confirmed impression however, that, peculiar to the Italian method of singing, there is a throat-expansion which partially resists and wholly controls the breath; intensifying the tone, and by its reaction on the system arousing the inner nature. My impressions, which were originally received from the writings of Mr. Charles Lunn, have been strengthened during the past few years by my experiences with private pupils; and I conclude therefrom, that much of obstinate wrong-doing, such as clenching the jaws, bunching the tongue, and the rigidity of the throat and head passages, comes, not from what boys would term "pure cussedness," but from a laudable though misplaced attempt to secure that control of the breath which the throat cavities have neglected to obtain; and I can imagine just such a conversation as the following:—

TEACHER.—"Master Tongue! What are you doing, bunching yourself into a knot in that fashion?"

TONGUE.—"Sir! I am controlling the breath as best I can."

TEACHER.—"You are doing nothing of the kind; your attempts are completely beyond your ability, for you were never designed for any such purpose. Moreover you are making yourself ridiculous, and disturbing the whole machinery of the voice."

TONGUE.—"Well, sir, some one must attend to it, and the throat cavities are doing nothing."

TEACHER.—"Do you attend simply to your own duties, and I will see to it that the throat cavities also fulfil theirs."

For years, I worked with my pupils from the outside inwards, a sort of *voice-science* which adjusted the parts; then, turning from the body to the mind, I worked from the inside outwards, the art of singing.

But, of late years, I have discarded much of this preparatory work, securing as soon as possible an expansive throat control, which comes as a new sensation, a taking hold of the breath, a sense of grasp, fulfilment. For the parts which before were wayward and stubborn yield to the least local treatment, after throat control is secured.

The limited time at our disposal will permit only the briefest possible mention of a few conditions necessary to the production of good voice.

1. *Soft voice.* Because the weeding out of the impurities of tone will lesson its quantity. It is the flower of the voice, not its weeds, which must be developed.

2. *High voice.* Because a large proportion of children's wrong-doing springs from too loud speaking or singing in the lower part of the voice. Even when the trouble appears in the high notes, the root of the evil is generally in the low ones. Moreover the natural voice of a child is higher than the average adult soprano, as a child's larynx is smaller than a woman's.

3. *Active smiling face.* I say active, because the smile must be of that infectious kind which kindles a response from others. Smiling reduces all mere physical effort and softens the improper contractions of the face and throat; and while it does not interfere in the least with the throat expansion, it does affect the other parts, securing in them a condition like to that of soft wax ready for the modeller.

The most urgent appeals to his sympathies would fail to affect the features of a man who is straining under the burden of a heavy weight. A man in such a condition is out of balance. I believe that a flood of some gentle feeling through his system would reduce for a moment his physical powers, as laughing would do so. Further than this, I am not sure that under circumstances prohibiting this physical relaxing, if such a state of things could exist, he would not be incapable of more than a dull sensation, in place of genuine love or genuine pity.

All this applies in singing; for the rigidity of features consequent on over-effort or wrongly directed effort, produces a physical state that only refuses to express the subtleties of the inner nature, but by continued antagonism may eventually starve it. (Illustration).

4. *A long-drawn breath.* If in passing through the street this afternoon, something should occur which aroused your indignation to boiling heat, some outrage to a child or to an animal, your eyes would flash, your hands clench, and among other symptoms you would take a

long breath, probably drawn in rather noisily through the nostrils. Thus with a sudden flood of indignation would come in a long breath for its expression.

In like manner should the breath for singing be drawn through the nostrils, actively and somewhat noisily sniffed into the lungs, an inspiration in every sense of the word. This rule must be followed through all the years of education, except that the noise may be dispensed with, and the opened mouth be sometimes permitted to assist the nostrils.

Deep breathing is associated with depth of feeling, profound emotions, or a sense of control. Shallow breath indicates small talk, fussiness, or agitation. Vocal examples, shallow and profound.

In singing songs—exercises or solfeggios, and in the study of music notation—every phrase, every sentence must be assimilated by the singer's nature during the taking in of the breath; then it becomes a part of himself, and the fluent voice which follows is simple rebound, the almost involuntary rebound of a voluntary inspiration.

It is no longer necessary to think of the throat, the tongue, etc. All these will harmoniously unite in working out the inspiration which was roused during the taking in of the breath.

There is a thoughtfulness which weights enthusiasm and impulse, without which this fluent voice would degenerate to a worthless expression of vain imaginings and general flightiness; a balloon without ballast. But the trouble is that our pupils in singing as in study are all ballast; therefore let us strive first for balloon elasticity and impulse, intending that it shall be gradually freighted and balanced by serious thought and solid purpose.

All this will come if we do not go too fast. A good gardener will trust a good deal to sunshine and showers. Conciliate nature by securing a harmonious action of the mind and body, and she will make the rest easy of accomplishment.

SUPPLEMENTARY MEETING.

SUPPLEMENTARY MEETING.

WHAT SHALL BE TAUGHT THE CHILDREN?

AN ABSTRACT BY MARY H. HUNT, NATIONAL SUPERINTENDENT OF SCIENTIFIC INSTRUCTION OF THE W. C. T. U.

In accordance with recent legislation, thirty-two States and Territories now have temperance education laws.

What is the true, and therefore, the best scientific temperance teaching for these schools becomes a vital question. The story of the battle of the contending knights over the two-sided shield is a fair illustration of the injustice sometimes unconsciously done each other by thoroughly honest contestants over this question.

Prior to recent discoveries of modern science concerning its nature and effects, "the abuse and not the use of alcohol" was the evil temperance advocates sought to reform. They denounced drunkenness, but said nothing against the drink itself. The example of abstinence for the sake of the weaker brother was urged upon moderate or occasional drinkers. That there is a danger, *per se*, lurking in the first or occasional glass itself, because of the nature of the drink, was not then understood; and men were urged to control, rather than warned against forming the drink appetite.

A text-book on this subject, from this standpoint, would

1st. Denounce drunkenness, its consequences, and the drunkard in vivid terms ("the abuse.") But it would not describe alcohol as a poison.

2d. It might tell of "discords in families, quarrels, murders, sickness, pauperism, insanity, and misery, as some of the results of the action of alcohol on the nervous system" ("the abuse.") But it would not enlarge upon the unchanged and poisonous presence of alcohol in beer, wine, and cider, and would not put strong and emphatic emphasis upon the warning against the use of these liquors.

3d. It might teach that "the man who indulges freely in drink is likely to pay for it the next day with headaches," etc., ("the abuse.") But it would not emphasize the fact that, used as a beverage, alcohol always endangers the drinker in proportion to the amount taken.

4th. It might teach that "the appetite for alcohol keeps growing, and a moderate drinker is in some danger of becoming a drunkard," ("the abuse.") But it would not teach that in beginning to drink at all is the danger of forming the imperious appetite that leads to ruin, and that the moderate drinker is always in danger of becoming a drunkard.

A person from "the abuse" side of the shield, and perhaps some total abstainers in principle and practice, who have not thought much on this phase of the subject, would look favorably upon such a text-book.

Its strong outcry against drunkenness, its warning concerning the growth of the alcohol appetite, its vivid portrayal of the consequences of the habits of the old toper to the various organs of the body, all this to them would seem like good temperance teaching.

The student of modern research on this question sees in the omissions and qualified statements of such a book, the trace, at every point, of the old falacies that have been the cause of a large share of the drunkenness that blights modern society. In the light of modern science alcohol is a poison. Its use as a beverage at all is an abuse of the human system in proportion to the amount taken, and it is the nature of a little to create the appetite for more.

To the critic from this side of the shield, no denunciation of drunkenness can make up for the lack of warning against the drink itself. The brewers and saloon-keepers will all join in a vehement condemnation of drunkenness, but they want nothing said against the drink. The majority of the children in our public schools are not drunkards or moderate drinkers needing to be reformed, but they do need to be taught the treacherous and dangerous character of alcohol itself, especially as it appears in such lighter liquors (wine, beer, and cider), as they will be tempted to take. Instruction for them should put the greatest stress upon the insidious connection between beginning to drink and the condition into which the old toper is ultimately plunged. They need to be warned against the formation of appetite more than of the danger of increasing it when once formed. A description of the "joy and comfort of taking a little liquor" that fails in the context to describe the danger of that little, and only tells in that connection of the consequences of "taking enough to get slightly intoxicated," is perilous teaching against which our friends on this side of the shield cry out. That the contestants looking from the other side should misunderstand and sometimes misrepresent this cry is only a new phase of the often repeated experience of pioneers for truth.

If this new education is to give to the world a coming generation of intelligent total abstainers, as we expect, its manuals of instruction must teach with no uncertain sound the proven findings of science, viz.:

1st. That alcohol is a dangerous and seductive poison.

2d. That beer, wine, and cider contain this same alcohol, thus making them dangerous drinks, to be avoided.

3d. That it is the nature of a little of any liquor containing alcohol to create an uncontrollable appetite for more, and therefore the strongest warning should be urged against taking that little, and thus forming the appetite.

4th. This instruction must be as well graded to the capacities of each class of pupils as the modern school readers are. A book fit for high schools, put into primary or intermediate classes, will make the study a failure there.

5th. This is not a physiological but a temperance movement. In all grades below the high school this instruction should contain only physiology enough to make the hygiene of temperance and other laws of health intelligible. Temperance should be the chief and not the subordinate topic.

Lacking in any of these five points, a text-book on scientific temperance is incomplete, and the use in the schools of such a book will not result in a strong temperance sentiment among the pupils using it.

REPORT

OF THE

Committee on Necrology.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.

PRESIDENT MARK HOPKINS.

BY I. W. ANDREWS, LL.D., OHIO.

Mark Hopkins was born at Stockbridge, Mass., February 4, 1802, and died at Williamstown, June 17, 1887. He was the eldest of the three sons of Archibald and Mary (Curtis) Hopkins. His grandfather was Colonel Mark Hopkins (Yale, 1758), who married a sister of Colonel Ephraim Williams, the founder of Williams College. Dr. Samuel Hopkins, of Newport, R. I., a noted divine of the last century, was a brother of his grandfather. His brother Albert (Williams 1826) was professor at Williams from 1829 to his death, in 1872. His mother's brother taught the academy at Lenox, and Dr. Hopkins was, in the main, fitted for college by him. He was one winter at Clinton, N. Y., living with an uncle. He taught a district school at the age of nineteen, in Richmond, Mass., and while studying medicine in New York city, taught in a young ladies' school.

Mark Hopkins was graduated at Williams College in 1824. From 1825 to 1827 he was tutor there. He studied medicine at the Berkshire Medical School, taking his degree in 1829. In 1830 he was appointed professor of moral philosophy and rhetoric at Williams. His ability as a teacher of philosophy was so marked that, six years later, on the resignation of President Edward Dorr Griffin, he was elected to the presidency. Dr. Hopkins continued in this office for thirty-six years, till, having reached the age of seventy, he insisted on retiring. But his connection with the institution as instructor terminated only with his life. From 1836 his department of instruction was moral and intellectual philosophy. He received the degree of D.D. from Dartmouth in 1837, and from Harvard in 1841. The degree of LL.D. was conferred on him by the regents of the University of the State of New York in 1857, and by Harvard in 1886.

Dr. Hopkins was thus connected, as an instructor, with Williams College for fifty-nine years, for thirty-six years of which he was president. Thirty-six years is a period of exceptional length for such an office. The oldest colleges in the country give but three other instances of a presidency extending to thirty years: President Carnahan was thirty-one years at Princeton; President Holyoke, thirty-two years at Harvard; and the younger President Wheelock, thirty-six at Dartmouth. The longest term at Yale was that of President Day, twenty-nine years.

During the whole period of his presidency Dr. Hopkins gave the instruction in the department of philosophy. For many years he had almost the entire charge of the senior class, and the students always looked forward with eager interest to the time when they should come under his instruction. It is becoming customary for the head of a college to do little or no work of instruction, but it is doubtful whether the office of president, important and honorable as it is, would have had much attraction for Dr. Hopkins, separated from the duties of the class-room. For the general administrative duties he had no special taste. During the first year of his presidency he said he would willingly give up half his salary if he had nothing to do but teach. Teaching was his great work. He could, indeed, do all things well. His quickness of perception, his excellent judgment, his conscientious fidelity, enabled him to succeed in all the work of college administration; but he felt that his place was in the class-room. He was truly a prince among teachers. Probably no college president, no college teacher, has ever impressed young men more strongly. Men often outgrow their teachers. Those who seemed great to them, as students, may, in later years, lose something of that greatness. But Mark Hopkins retained his place in the estimation of his pupils. The respect and veneration of the student period was not diminished by the lapse of years, but increased, rather.

He was a man of remarkably clear mental vision. He saw the truth and he had the power to make it plain to others. Hence, for the true student, it was a delight to attend his recitations and lectures. He was not greatly dependent upon educational methods and not forward to adopt new ones. Nor was he in haste to substitute a new text-book for an old one. In the department of philosophy the subject itself was the principal thing, and the student was expected to subject to a careful examination the views presented by the author. Sometimes a question or two at the beginning of a recitation would convince a student that he had misconceived the point under discussion. Free questioning was allowed and encouraged, and rarely was there any undue use made of it. The well known ideal of a college, so graphically presented by President Garfield, is one that all who have been under Dr. Hopkins would at once accept.

In all respects he was a large man. He was formed in a large mould. In person he was tall and of imposing presence. His mind was large and strong. He took broad views of every subject. His mind was philosophical and yet practical. He grasped a subject in its principles.

Hence he was never a partisan. There was nothing small or petty about him. Blended with this breadth and greatness there was the charm of simplicity. In all his writings, in all his addresses, there is no striving after effect. The first lecture of one of his courses before the Lowell Institute has this introductory sentence: "In entering upon this course of lectures there is one impression which I wish to guard against at the outset." In the union of simplicity with strength he has hardly been surpassed. Those who have listened to the brief addresses which for many years he has given at the anniversaries of the American Board—addresses always unwritten—have been at a loss which most to admire, the greatness of the thought or the simplicity of the language.

In a discourse delivered after the death of Mr. Amos Lawrence, he speaks of a conversation that occurred early in his presidency. As they were riding together Mr. Lawrence said to him: "If I were to give ten thousand dollars to Williams College, in what direction should I give it?" "Give it to the trustees, to be used at their discretion," was the immediate response. Dr. Hopkins says he gave this answer, "knowing the perfect simplicity of character of Mr. Lawrence. Nothing more was said. He gave the money." The incident certainly is a beautiful illustration of the character of each of the two men. President Hopkins would not have made such a reply to every rich man, and not every college president would have made it even to Amos Lawrence. Dr. Hopkins was in the highest sense a genuine man. There was nothing factitious about him.

From the beginning of his presidency he was accustomed to fill the pulpit of the Congregational church at Williamstown one third of the time. He delivered, also, many public addresses on important occasions. For thirty years he was the president of the American Board of Missions, one of the largest and most influential missionary organizations in the United States. He has published a number of works on ethical and philosophical subjects, two of them being courses of lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute, at Boston. A number of volumes of his baccalaureate and other discourses have also been published. In all these ways he has become very widely and favorably known to the intelligent people of the United States and of other countries. The name of Mark Hopkins is by all connected with high intellectual and moral worth, and with large success in the work of education. No man of our time would sooner than he be taken as a type of true and genuine manhood. One of the older graduates of Williams gave to the writer this estimate of our common friend and instructor, as we walked over the beautiful college grounds at the late commencement: "The four greatest intellects which our country has produced are Jonathan Edwards, Alexander Hamilton, Daniel Webster, and Mark Hopkins; and the last is by no means the least."

In no great man has there been a finer blending of traits. With great virtues there are sometimes great faults. Strength in some points is counterbalanced by weakness in others. Dr. Hopkins was symmetrical, and that on a large scale. With all his ability, he trusted nothing to genius. He believed in discipline and culture, and his life was devoted to helping young men prepare themselves for the most efficient service for God and for man. "No student can pay for what he gets at Williams College," he would say, when a foolish young man would think his money could make amends for his idleness or his conduct.

His words and his example have been a constant stimulus to those who have enjoyed the benefit of his teaching, and those of them who, like him, have given themselves to the work of instruction, attribute to him no little of whatever success may have attended their efforts.

REV. ANSON SMYTH, D. D.

BY B. A. HINSDALE.

This well-known minister and educator was born of New England parents at Franklin, Pennsylvania, in the year 1811. He prepared for college at Milan, Ohio, studied at Williams, graduated in theology from the Yale Theological Seminary, and was ordained a minister of the Presbyterian church. He first served a Congregational church at Orange, Connecticut, three years; next he preached four years in Michigan, under the direction of the Home Missionary Society; and in the year 1847, he became pastor of the Presbyterian church at Toledo, Ohio, where he continued three years. His retirement from this position closed his pastoral labors, but he continued to preach to the close of his life. For the eighteen years following his retirement from the Toledo pastorate, he is said to have averaged one sermon a week; and it is probable that he fell but little short of that afterwards.

In 1850, the event occurred that decided the trend of Mr. Smyth's life for the next sixteen years, and in a sense to a very end. In that year the Akron school law was extended to Toledo, and the board of education elected under it called Mr. Smyth, who had been an active participant in all the preliminary movements, to the superintendency of the schools. He held this position six years, and was very successful in marking out courses of study, in grading pupils, in selecting teachers, and in all the various administrative duties incident to his position. The schools thrived under his care, and when he retired, the *Blade* said his retirement was no less than a calamity. It must be remembered that in 1850 the public school system of Ohio as it exists to-day was in the future. Everything was then in a formative state, and Superintendent Smyth, as well as the other superintendents of the time, had to make a path, not tread in one already made. He bore an honorable part in the discussions that led up to the school law of 1853, and this, together with his Toledo work, gave him a wide reputation in educational circles.

In February, 1856, Dr. Smyth assumed the editorial management of the *Ohio Journal of Education*, now the *Ohio Educational Monthly*. At that time this veteran journal was owned by the Ohio Teachers' Association, and it was the executive committee of the Association that called him to the editorial chair. He continued in charge at that time only a single year, but was afterwards connected with the publication and management of the *Journal* on two different occasions, the last time in connection with Dr. E. E. White, now of Cincinnati.

From 1857 to 1863 Dr. Smyth was Commissioner of Common Schools, of Ohio. When he was elected to this office, the school system of the State had not become thoroughly organized under the law of 1853. His labors as commissioner were of great value to the State, but they cannot be here described in full. It must suffice to say that his regular office work, consultations with members of the legislature and executive officers, attendance on institutes and other educational gatherings, conferences, and correspondence with friends of education within and without the State, filled up six years of active usefulness. It is said that he visited on an educational errand every county in Ohio.

In 1862, Commissioner Smyth declined a reelection, intending at the time to abandon educational work altogether, but afterwards concluded to accept the superintendency of the Cleveland schools, to which he was elected in 1863. Cleveland was henceforth his home. He held the superintendency four years, and left it at his own choice, in 1867. All that time the schools prospered; the number of pupils and teachers greatly increased, new buildings were built, and the whole scale of the schools was raised. A prominent Ohio educator, who was associated with him for a time at Cleveland, has written thus since the doctor's death:

"Dr. Smyth's strength as a superintendent did not lie in his great familiarity with the details of school management and methods of instruction, but rather in his moral and social qualities, his knowledge of human nature, and his abounding common sense. He was a man of clear and broad views on the general subject of education, a good general organizer, and an indefatigable worker. He hated wrong and loved right, and was outspoken in his denunciation of the former and his defence of the latter. He was a kind and true friend, and a man of strong faith and broad sympathies."

And thus another co-worker who was with him for a longer time:

"Dr. Smyth's predecessors in Cleveland had thought much of methods of instruction and but little of organization. He was a good organizer, and in his school career that was his work. He organized the Toledo schools, and, I suppose, did much for the Columbus office, while he greatly improved the organization of the schools of Cleveland. For this he had some excellent qualities. He was a good judge of people. He usually made excellent choice of teachers, and selected wisely in appointing to positions of responsibility. He used to mention with pride, that fifteen years after he left the Cleveland schools, a large proportion of the teachers in the most important positions were those that he had selected. I have always felt that in this particular he was very strong. This same talent gave him a large influence with the board of education. In his dealings with that body he always appeared to advantage."

When he left the superintendency, in 1867, there were 130 teachers in the Cleveland schools; the twenty or more so still continued in the service on his demise, gave expression to their high appreciation of his character and services, and their sense of personal loss, in a fitting resolution.

Dr. Smyth died after a painful illness, May 2, 1887. His last years were years of misfortune in a business and financial sense, but his sterling sense, good humor, and fellow-feeling continued to the last. He wrote much for the religious press, and took a great interest in religious matters. One has said: "Dr. Smyth loved the church, enjoyed the presbytry and the synod, and gloried in the general assembly." His mental and moral qualities plainly appear in the course of this sketch, and do not call for formal enumeration. This is the resolution in which the Cleveland teachers gave expression to their feelings on his death:

"*Resolved*, That in the death of the Rev. Dr. Anson Smyth we have lost a true and tried friend, whose life has been devoted to the advancement of the cause of education among the masses, the elevation of moral character, and the dissemination of Christian principles among those with whom he, either personally or through the medium of his writings, came in contact; that society has lost a most worthy member, one who, both by word and deed, was ever ready to cheer the discouraged, help the needy, and relieve the distresses of the broken-hearted; that the State has lost a servant who gave the best years of his life to the promotion of those interests which alone can render secure the grand institutions of the commonwealth, one who assisted greatly in the organization and the perfection of our public school system, and who for several years as state superintendent gave tone and direction to the work of our common schools, and who, as superintendent of the schools of Cleveland for four years, did much toward laying the broad foundation which made their present prosperity possible.

Resolved, That in the accomplishment of all this work he has reared to himself a monument more enduring than time itself."

EBEN S. STEARNS.[*]

BY MRS. S. B. P.

Rev. Eben S. Stearns, Chancellor of the University of Nashville, Tennessee, and President of the State Normal College, died April 11, 1887, at his home in Nashville, while still actively advancing the interests of his last successful work.

He was born at Bedford, Massachusetts, in 1819, and was educated at Harvard. He was one of a family of scholarly and eminent educators. One brother, Rev. Samuel Stearns, was pastor of the Old South Church, Boston; another, Rev. William A. Stearns, was president of Amherst College, a term of twenty years; another, Josiah A., was master of Norcross School, Boston; and another, Rev. John F. Stearns, was long settled at Newark, New Jersey, and, with a sister, now survives him.

Dr. Stearns taught first in Ipswich, Massachusetts; was afterwards principal of the Free Street Seminary in Portland, Maine. While there, a Portland Paper speaks of an address given by him before some charitable society, and says: "It was without a superfluous or inappropriate sentence."

From December, 1843, till his going to West Newton, he was at the head of the Newburyport Female High School. He was its first principal. A writer in the *Newburyport Herald* of some years later, characterizes him as "a man of great intellectual strength."

In May, 1849, he was placed at the head of the State Normal School, then at West Newton, but removed, December, 1852, to Framingham. When he left it, September, 1856, to go to Albany, his withdrawal was referred to as, "a loss,—a great loss to the board.[†] He has been a faithful, attentive, and devoted teacher, and wherever he goes the best wishes of the board will go with him." Of the school it was said, "The days of its wanderings are over. Its location has been permanently established. Its foundations have been laid broad and deep. Its pupils have been in great demand as teachers, and their compensation increased one-half since it was established. An army of 414 pupils have graduated from the school and become teachers, since Mr. Stearns became its principal." In September, 1856, he removed to Albany, there to take charge of the Albany Female Academy, which at just that point in its history needed Dr. Stearns's fresh energy and genius for organization to revive and take again the elevated tone and position that it had held for many years previously. During the thirteen years of his administration, its popularity was more than doubled, both in numbers and in social standing, while the whole tone and spirit of the institution was enthusiastic and loyal. He left it an institution of nearly three hundred pupils, with a corps of fifteen instructors.

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[*] This sketch was kindly prepared for the committee, by Mrs. S. B. P., a former pupil of Dr. Stearns, and for some time an associate teacher with him at Albany.

[†] Massachusetts State Board of Education.

In 1869, Dr. Stearns was called to the head of the Robinson Female Seminary, an institution beautifully located in the town of Exeter, New Hampshire. With an endowment fund of some $300,000, and a new and elegant building well suited to its needs, much was expected of it. The building was dedicated on the 21st of September, 1869, and at the same time the principal was formally inducted into office. On the following morning the difficult work of organization began; the organization of an institution which was hoped to prove "susceptible of being made a perpetual blessing, and conferring great honor upon a town already distinguished for possessing one of the best, if not the best, classical school for boys in the United States."* Here he remained, especially happy in his work, till he was urgently called to take up the work in Nashville, in 1875.

He was appointed chancellor of the University, by the late Dr. Barnas Sears, agent of the trustees of the Peabody fund, who had long known Dr. Stearns almost intimately in his educational work, and could well judge of his fitness for this position. How fully Dr. Stearns has realized all the expectation and ambition for this university, let its history and present position demonstrate. Of the magnitude and difficulty of the work only those can judge who realize how much must be overcome in re-establishing and organizing educational institutions in a great State, after the devastation of five years of civil war. Hon. E. H. Ewing in his centennial address, in 1885, aptly describes Dr. Stearns in this work, as "wise, brave, energetic, learned, shrewd, vigorous, faithful," and now,—"The normal college is the glory and wonder of the State."

Dr. Stearns was dignified, firm in what he considered right, though conciliatory in manner, by his courtesy winning confidence, dispelling prejudice, and awakening often an enthusiasm for the work in hand. His character, refined and scholarly, was an educational influence in itself, and the unfailing freshness and youthful energy he brought to every enterprise were an inspiration to his pupils and associates. He had withal a genial sense of humor which warmed and brightened all his conversation. His quick perception of a ludicrous side to many a perplexing and discouraging state of things often helped him over hard places, and his kindly and quick wit turned aside many obstructions. That he won the love and sympathy of people to a remarkable degree is shown by his successful work everywhere, and the many appreciative tributes to his memory.

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*Phillips Exeter Academy.

ROSWELL D. HITCHCOCK, D. D.

BY T. J. MORGAN.

Roswell D. Hitchcock, D. D., LL. D., was born in East Machias, Maine, August 15, 1817. He was graduated at Amherst, in 1836, and later studied theology at Andover. In 1852, after spending two years in study in German universities, he became professor of Natural and Revealed Religion in Bowdoin College. In 1855, he was elected professor of Church History in the Union Theological Seminary, New York, a position he retained until 1880, when he was elected president of the institution, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Dr. William Adams. He died at his summer home near Fall River, Massachusetts, June 16, 1887, just after the close of a year of successful work.

He was a brilliant scholar and lecturer, a popular preacher, and an enthusiastic teacher,—which is hardly to be wondered at since he was a consummate rhetorician, a clear thinker, and possessed a sonorous voice and a pleasing presence. But, "hating the intolerable drudgery of authorship," he left little of his thought in any other form than in the character and lives of the many able and useful men whom he influenced and moulded by his life and teachings.

REPORT

OF THE

EDUCATIONAL EXPOSITION,

CHICAGO,

1887.

REPORT ON THE EDUCATIONAL EXPOSITION AT CHICAGO.

1887.

TO WM. E. SHELDON, *President of the National Educational Association.*

Dear Sir :—The following reports from the different members of the committee appointed by you to examine the educational exhibit at Chicago are respectfully submitted.

GEO. P. BROWN,
Chairman.

GENERAL REPORT.

The president of the Association appointed the following persons members of the general committee: Geo. P. Brown, of Illinois, *Chairman ;* W. A. Mowry, of Massachusetts ; Aaron Gove, of Colorado; Jerome Allen, of New York; Albert Salisbury, of Wisconsin; F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri.

Mr. Mowry was appointed chairman of a sub-committee to report upon the exhibit made from manual training and industrial schools, and schools for the defective classes. He called to his aid E. W. Coy, of Ohio ; Thos. J. Morgan, of Rhode Island ; and J. H. Baker, of Colorado.

Mr. Gove was made chairman of a sub-committee to report upon the work from city graded schools, high schools, universities and colleges, and normal schools. He chose as his assistants R. W. Stevenson, of Ohio ; H. S. Jones, of Pennsylvania ; J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri; and Henry Sabin, of Iowa.

Mr. Jerome Allen was made chairman of a committee to report upon the exhibit of school appliances, and educational literature for teachers.

Mr. Salisbury was chairman of the committee to report on rural schools, and called to his aid W. J. Brier, of Wisconsin.

Mr. Soldan was made chairman of the committee on the kindergarten and art exhibit, but was unable to give the matter his personal attention. Miss Josephine Locke, of Missouri, and W. N. Hailmann, of Indiana, prepared this portion of the report. The reports of these different committees are published substantially as they were presented to the chairman.

The exhibit of the educational products and appliances of the different classes of educational institutions and publishing and manufacturing establishments of this country filled one half of the great exposition building. While the exhibit could not claim to be national in its extent, and in all of its departments, it was fairly representative of the present state of educational thought and endeavor in some departments of school education, in the more advanced States of the Union. For a detailed statement of what was exhibited the reader is referred to the reports of the sub-committees that follow.

From the nature of the case only a few of the products of a school can be displayed in an exhibit of this kind. Nor are these the immediate products of the school. Those are the children in so far as they have been educated by the school. And to the extent that the products displayed are the work of the pupils, and the result of school instruction, they may properly stand for the degree of education attained in the schools in the departments of instruction there represented. If it should be established, as it is sometimes asserted, that exhibits of this nature are no true representation of what the child is able to do of himself, but are the results of the combined efforts of teacher and pupils, the educational value of the exhibit is not lessened thereby, since it shows the end toward which the schools are struggling, and represents approximately the thought of the teacher of what his pupils ought to be able to do. These products, in that case, fairly represent his ideal of what his pupils should accomplish in the department of school work exhibited. And it may be pretty safely assumed that, in general, an educational exhibit of this kind will fairly represent this ideal. Anything which does not will not be shown.

It must also be borne in mind that what is displayed in such an exhibit will be, for the most part, those products in which manual skill is involved. These can be displayed in a more attractive manner than can be results that are purely psychical, and observers are more interested in them for the reason that they know that they are not merely the reproductions of a text. The exhibition of that which can be learned directly from a book, when no rules are prescribed for the manner of its reproduction by the pupil is a matter of comparatively little interest to teachers because of their ignorance of the rules that were observed in the preparation of these specimens of knowledge. Many of this kind of products were exhibited that were fraught with valuable suggestions to teachers as to both the matter and the method of teaching in the different grades of school. But the excessive heat during the time in which the doors of the exposition were open made it impracticable for any adequate examination of that portion of the exhibit that taught these lessons.

The inability of teachers to make an attractive exhibit of school work that does not involve manual effort, and the relative ease with which an attractive exhibit of manual work can be prepared, will account, in a large measure, for the preponderance of the latter in this exhibit. This fact needs to be borne in mind in order to avoid the conclusion that the schools are making manual instead of intellectual training their chief object. But after this allowance has been made, the exhibit may be properly construed to signify that the schools are responding in a very encouraging manner to the growing conviction inside and outside of them that more attention must be given to this kind of education.

This exhibit teaches the important lesson that drawing has not yet become to any large extent a language of the pupils. But it shows encouraging signs of progress in that direction. In the work from the schools of Cleveland, Columbus, and Chicago, there are notable evidences of an intelligent movement toward this end. It is evident that the greatest educational value of drawing will never be realized until the child can use it as a language for the expression of his thought. The use that is made of drawing in some of the schools of the cities named, and in some others, for illustrating reading lessons, is indicative of what it may become when the teacher shall be able to use it as a language. When these possibilities shall be realized it will be seen to be the manual art *par excellence*, and one that has an educational and economic value common to all classes and conditions of men.

Industrial Education. The very full and able report of the sub-committee upon this portion of the exhibit will enable the reader to form a clear conception of what it contained. What is the lesson in full which it teaches it will not be easy to state at this stage of our educational development. It is not difficult to determine the significance of the work of the polytechnic school, of the school for the defective classes, and of the special industrial schools for boys and girls in our larger cities. But what is the true meaning of the work-shop as connected with and a part of the ordinary common school, as illustrated by the report from Peru, Ill.? Has it any significance for the common schools in general, and has it more than a temporary existence in the schools where it is introduced? How much reliance is to be placed upon the assertion that the work-shop has come into these schools to stay? What is the meaning of the statement that the children are made more "practical"? and what is the real value of this thing called "practical"? Questions like these must be answered eventually from another standpoint than that of sentiment and from one more fundamental than that of the supposed vocation which the pupil is expected to follow. The vital question is, What is the matter and method of elementary education that will do the most toward fitting the pupils of the common schools for right thinking and right acting, that is, for right living in this world? What is to be added to or expunged from the common school curriculum must be determined primarily and solely from the answer made to this inquiry. No one can say what shall stay or what shall go until he knows what is the true function of the common school in our civilization. What is theoretically true must be practically true in this as in all other matters. It is admitted that what goes into this curriculum must first prove its right to admission by demonstrating its value to general education. Upon this point the educational world are agreed. A rational curriculum poorly taught must not be supplanted by an irrational one, merely because it may chance to be well taught. The evident remedy in that case is the improvement of the teaching.

It did not appear that this exhibit shed much light upon this question of industrial education as a part of the curriculum of the common school. But it did much to emphasize the importance of manual training in these schools. The chief difference that developed was in the kind and amount of this training. Shall we seek to improve and perfect the manual training already provided in the accepted common school course, or shall we add other forms of manual training to an already overburdened curriculum?

Art Department. The necessary absence of the chairman of this committee, Dr. F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, during a large portion of the time, prevented him from giving to this exhibit that personal attention that its importance demanded. But the excellent report prepared by Miss Josephine Locke, of St. Louis, for the committee, leaves little to be desired. She was requested to report upon the history of the development of art in the common schools of this country, and upon its present status as shown by this exhibit. The report will be read with great interest and profit by every teacher interested in the æsthetic culture of children.

Kindergarten Exhibit. Because of the sickness and necessary absence for a large part of the time of the chairman of the sub-committee to which was assigned the duty of reporting upon the kindergarten exhibit no extended report of this has been made. Prof. W. N. Hailmann, of La Porte, Ind., has kindly furnished an enumeration of the different exhibits and what they contained. It would be of great interest to know to what extent the kindergarten has contributed to the improvement of primary teaching in the country. Much kindergarten material of one kind or another is now employed by primary teachers. But how much of the kindergarten idea has been seized by the primary teacher? The work from the primary schools would undoubtedly reveal this, but only to the eye of an expert. At least, he alone could make an adequate and satisfactory statement of it.

Illinois Exhibit. The exhibit from the State of Illinois was more ex tensive by far than that from any other State. There was in it a good representation of the products of every grade of school from the primary to the university, inclusive. It was, probably, the most complete school exhibit ever made from any single State, and was especially valuable for the reason that it may be regarded as a type of what the other States of the Union, that have long-established and well-organized school systems, could produce. There were extensive exhibits from twenty-eight different counties, and many if not all of which contained work from the rural schools, as well as from the cities and towns. The value of this exhibit to the country would have been much greater but for the intense heat. Any prolonged stay in the building, which a thorough study would require, was practically impossible.

We cannot speak in too high praise of the efficient manner in which the local and State committees, appointed to organize and display these products, performed their duties, under the leadership of the general director, Albert G. Lane, of Chicago. The building was admirably adapted to the purpose, and the facilities supplied by the committee left nothing to be desired.

It may be said of this as was said of the exhibit at Madison, "It was a grand success in all of its departments, and formed a very important feature in the greatest educational gathering ever held in this country."

Respectfully submitted,
GEO. P. BROWN,
Chairman General Committee.

REPORT ON EXHIBITS FROM MANUAL SCHOOLS, AND SCHOOLS FOR THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

GEORGE P. BROWN, ESQ., *Chairman.*

Dear Sir:—To me was assigned the duty of making report upon exhibits from "Manual Schools," and "Schools for the Defective Classes." I beg leave to present the following report:

In accordance with instructions from the committee, I called to my aid in the examination of the various exhibits, the following gentlemen: E. W. Coy, Ph. D., Principal Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Gen. T. J. Morgan, Principal State Normal School, Providence, Rhode Island; and J. H. Baker, A. M., Principal Public High School, Denver, Colorado.

I found exhibits from the following institutions, which seemed to come within the department assigned me: Omaha High School, Nebraska; Springfield High School, Massachusetts; Toledo High School, Ohio; Chicago High School, Illinois; Hebrew Technical Institute, New York; Chicago Manual Training School, Illinois; University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois; public schools of Peru, Illinois; State Reform School, Pontiac, Illinois; Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Illinois; Deaf and Dumb Institution, Jacksonville, Illinois; Wisconsin School for the Blind, Jonesville, Wisconsin; Illinois Asylum for Feeble Minded Children, Lincoln, Illinois.

It is possible that other institutions had exhibits which, in part or in whole, should be included in this department, but in the few days in which the committee were in attendance, and with the gigantic proportions of the exhibit as a whole, it was impossible to be absolutely accurate or exhaustive in examination or report.

There were several exhibits which the committee would have considered as belonging to their department, but which they were told would more properly be classed under another head, and therefore they were omitted in our investigations.

So far as we could secure lists of articles on exhibition, they are presented below.

LISTS OF ARTICLES ON EXHIBITION FROM MANUAL SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLS FOR THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, CHAMPAIGN.

From the Wood Shop:

1. Specimens made with the plane, flat, square, octagonal, and round. 2. Specimens showing joints, mortise and tenon, several forms,—through, blind, double, with relish, oblique, etc. 3. Cabinet makers' joints, bevel, drawer, dovetailed, nipper, etc. 4. Dados, with and without dowel pins. 5. Mouldings, frames, and miter boxes, all worked with hand tools. 6. Carved and inlaid mouldings. 7. Turning, cylinders, rings, with various cuts. 8. Turning, rosettes, and newel heads. 9. Veneer work, inlaying, overlaying, panels, etc. 10. Brass cutting.

About fifty pieces, made in terms first and second of freshman year. Time,—twenty-five weeks; five lessons per week; two hours for a lesson.

Third term. Stair work, and cutting of blocks of plaster-of-paris in forms of stone-work. The exhibit shows a rough block, several blocks cut, and a monumental design in this material. The object sought especially in the instruction, is accuracy.

From the Iron Shop:

Freshman year. Three terms: ten hours per week.

1. Wood work, planed, tenoned, turned, cut with chisel and gouge, leading up to simple pattern forms. 2. Blacksmith work,—drawing out, upsetting, square from round, round from square, angles, rings welded, staples, eyes, tools, as cold chisels, and lathe tools. 3. Chipping of cast and wrought iron in various forms. 4. Filing, squares, hexagons, cubes, and pieces of various forms, regular and irregular; square to octagon, and octagon to round; screws and tops cut free-hand. 5. Turning small iron and brass pieces in the hand lathe. 6. Turning larger pieces, cylinders, cones, and irregular forms, on engine lathe; turning insides. ends, and outsides. 7. Planing with the planer or shaper, flat, square, grooved, crosscut, racks, etc. 8. Accurate filing with file and shaper. Moulding and casting of iron and brass is practised.

In second year some machine of importance is builded, as a large drill press, a milling machine, an engine, etc.

Several models of mechanical movements, the design and workmanship of seniors. Among these are Brehins coupling, Hooks joint, old hains coupling, stop wheels, elliptical surface wheels, variable and stop gear on spherical surface; rachet, belting to shafts at right angles; link motions: slot and pin motions; Prancellier's cell. These are carefully made working models, and are mostly designs worked out in size and proportion, but not otherwise original inventions.

Drawings in both departments are shown in large numbers, with theses and books of tracings, sketches, etc.

SCHOOLS OF PERU, ILLINOIS.

Exhibit of work done at the workshop and sewing room of the public schools of Peru, Illinois.

Workshop :

One plain foot-rest; one sled; one comb-box; two knife-boxes: one pencil-box; one splice; one mortise and tenon joint: one set of drawing models; one small walnut folding table; one checker-board table top; one foot-rest with embroidered cover from sewing class; one slipper-box, embroidered cover from sewing class; one small steam engine.

From Sewing Room :

One sample of darning in old towel; one sample plain sewing, pillow-case; one calico apron, plain sewing; one linen apron, insertion work; one linen napkin, marked; one girl's dress.

The above work was all done at regular recitation times, in workshop and sewing room. It was designed to show the various steps through which the work passes, rather than anything ornamental. In fact, no ornamental work was attempted, or evidently desired. Plain work with carpenters' tools, and hand work with the needle was evidently the aim.

The manual training department has been in operation four years; and has proved popular with both parents and pupils. "No part of the day," says the superintendent, "is looked forward to with so much interest as that in which the industrial classes come.' We have spent, on an average one hour a day, during the year just passed. The school district owns all the appliances used, and buys material which each pupil pays for as he uses it. The industrial department has come to our schools to stay. Nothing so tends to make the boys and girls practical as this work and instruction. It costs the district but a trifle, but is productive of far-reaching results.

FROM STATE REFORM SCHOOL, PONTIAC, ILLINOIS.

Boat made by boy who has not full use of his arms; picture frames made from cigar-box wood (nine); chairs, caning (five seats and one back); checker-board and men; tidy made by boy; one pair of shoes made entire by same boy; one pair of shoes made entire by two boys; ten pairs of shoes run through factory in the ordinary way; one walking-cane.

The following work was done in tailor shop, by boys without an overseer: One sheet; one coat; one pair pants; two caps; one shirt; two fans (wood); one fancy hanging basket; one white shirt and collar, laundry work.

FROM THE OMAHA HIGH SCHOOL.

1. Cross, halved together. 2. Exercise in sawing to knife line, and use of various sized chisels. 3. Exercise in mortising and chamfering. 4. Half dovetail joint. 5. Half dovetail joint. 6. Brace joint at angle of sixty degrees. 7. Dovetail joints, lapped. 8. Frame, joined by mortise and tenon joints. 9. Open and closed mortise and tenon joints. 10. Square frame, joined at each corner by different joint. 11. Exercise using chisels to cut to knife line, make open and closed mortises and tenons. 12. Miter joint, with open mortise and tenon joint. 13. Triangular frame. 14. False dovetail. 15. Exercise in double mortise and tenon, joint and blind mortise and tenon joint. 16. Box, dovetailed at corners. 17. Gate. 18. Jack-plane. 19. Smoothing-plane.

The teacher in charge adds the following:

"The work was begun in Omaha, in 1885, and till May, 1887, was only in carpentry. At that time wood turning was begun. The next branches to be taken up in this school, are carving, pattern-making, and moulding. The pupils are from eighth grade, and the highschool classes.

Two girls have taken the course, and their work is in every way equal to the boys'. Drawing is a part of the course, and no exercise is begun till a working drawing is made by the pupil. Average age of pupils, thirteen and one-half years Time in shop, one and one-half hours per day. Everything is furnished by the Board of Education, and pupils have no expenses.

ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, TERRA HAUTE, INDIANA.

In the exhibit of this institution are shown examples of students' work in wood, exercises in framing, cabinet and inlaid work, and a great variety of patterns, by freshman class.

Forgings of bolts, hammers, irregular shapes, and machine tools. Castings in brass, finished bolts, nuts, parts of machines, and small bench lathes completed by sophomore class.

Small upright drill press, speed lathe, cut gears and parts of turret lathe by junior class. A link and cam model, turret lathe completed, taps and dies, a dynamo for fifty incandescent lights, reamers, cutters, and fine tool work made and tempered by seniors.

Designs and working drawings for emery wheel stands, valve motion, pattern makers' lathe, and small upright drill press. Results of work done with the dynamo meter and steam engine indicator. Reports of tests of water works and electric light plant, also by seniors.

A map and profile of location of railroad survey through Madison county, Illinois, which location has been accepted by the company.

In drawing, the freshman class show outline drawing from model, and shading from model and sketches of machines.

The sophomore class show drawings in sepia and pen-and-ink drawings for photo-engraving, work with proofs of the plates. A large number of problems in descriptive geometry, line and brush shading, and working drawings made from data given.

The juniors show drawings of gears, cams, stone cutting, working and finished drawing, with original designing in parts of machines.

OMAHA HIGH SCHOOL.

The superintendent of the schools of Omaha, where a careful experiment has been tried in the high school, makes the following remarks in his last annual report:—

"The introduction of manual training into the high school and eighth grade has been one of the most interesting features of the work of the year. The ends to be accomplished by this kind of training have been much discussed, but there has been great uncertainly as to the best means of securing the desired results. Technical schools in large numbers have been established and conducted with excellent success, but the pupils in those schools differ widely from those in city high schools. The best authorities are not agreed as to the desirability of making industrial training a part of high-school education. And, with this point conceded, it is not certain what the character of the training should be. Our year's experience is a valuable contribution to the discussion now going on, but, under the circumstances, all undertakings of this kind must be looked upon as experimental. Since the 1st of October, 1885, seventy-nine boys, about evenly divided between the high school and the eighth grade, have had the benefit of this instruction. The course has been optional, those taking it doing the same academic work as the rest of the school. Arranged in classes of twenty each, they have spent one and one-half hours daily in the shop under the care of a competent instructor, learning light carpentry and how to use and take care of tools. The teacher has been enthusiastic, and the interest of the boys has been lively and well sustained. The aggregate amount of time spent in the shop amounts to less than a month of nine hours a day, and yet the progress of the boys has been remarkable. Few apprentices, after a full year in the shop, acquire more practical skill.

It is evident that manual training schools cannot be conducted without considerable expense, but for this year our shop has not cost more than some of the regular studies of the high school.

EXPENSE FOR THE CARPENTERING AND JOINING DEPARTMENT.

Twenty benches for 80 boys	$286 00
Per bench	14 25
Tools for 80 boys	510 00
Tools per boy	6 35
Expenses for gas and water service	92 00
Material used	200 00
Teacher's salary	900 00
Expense per boy	24 85

FOR WOOD-TURNING DEPARTMENT.

Twenty lathes	$580 00
Shafting, pulleys, and belting	188 45
Engine and boiler	225 00
Wood turning tools	140 05
Setting up lathes	200 00
Total expense for wood-turning department	$1,333 50
Expense per boy	16 68

EXPENSE APART FROM PERMANENT INVESTMENT.

For 80 pupils, tuition	$1,050 00
Material	200 00
Wear and tear of tools	200 00
Total expense	$1,450 00
Expense per pupil	18 12

A department of this kind has a tendency to hold boys in school at a time when there is a strong inclination to leave and go into business. Our high school and eighth grade have felt this influence, and suffered from it as much as any school in the land; yet of the 79 boys who took manual training last year, 75 remained in school to the close of the year. This is a remarkable fact in the history of the Omaha schools.

On the whole, our experiment with a manual training department in our high school, as far as it has gone, must be considered a success. It has not interfered with the regular academic work; it has not been excessively expensive; its influence on the high school generally has, on the whole, been favorable, and the progress of the boys in the mechanic arts has been satisfactory. It is not too much to say that the hopes of its friends have been fully realized."

For more careful study, after a general examination of the exhibits, it was agreed that Dr. Coy should write a special report upon the exhibits of

The Defective Classes; Gen. Morgan, upon the Illinois State University; and Mr. Baker, upon the several High Schools. Their reports are given below in full.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

REPORT OF T. J. MORGAN.

The exhibit of students' work from the State University, at Champaign, Illinois, showed clearly both their method and results. It comprised mechanical drawing in its various stages, and construction in both wood and metal.

There were three very noteworthy features. First, it was quite evident that the work was directed by a rigid method. It was the work of the hand, but of the hand guided by the mind. Thought preceded action. The brain led, the hand followed. There was an order of succession, a progress from lower to higher. There was a reason for everything. It was an embodiment in lines and material of ideas. This training culminates in the solution of difficult problems, by the invention of curious machinery for the accomplishment of some worthy end.

Students thus trained do not become mere copyists, blindly following the pattern, but intelligent workmen, competent to execute, to plan, and to direct.

Another feature was the character of the work itself. It was well done. Even that performed by beginners showed signs of care, accuracy, finish. The use of tools may be as pernicious in developing slovenly habits, inaccuracy, carelessness—precursors of failure, as the most vicious system of rote learning. It was apparent that the students whose work was on exhibition had a lively industrial conscience, as well as a busy brain and skilled hands. It seemed to be a maxim with them that what is worth doing is worth doing well. Not variety but finish, not quantity but quality. Workmanship, excellence, was stamped on everything.

And this leads me to note the third characteristic feature of the work. Its honest simplicity. Nothing seemed to be done for show, even the ornamental work stood for just what it was. There were no flourishes, no trickery, no pretences. Everything bore the marks of a firm moral purpose to do honest work. One could not help feeling that such a training would give us honest and efficient workmen, who, as architects, would not repeat the abominations of many modern buildings that try to call attention from their ugliness by high-sounding names, and bridge builders whose work would stand the test of hard usage.

Altogether the exhibit was most excellent, and justified the wisdom of maintaining such institutions as the industrial university.

Respectfully submitted,

T. J. MORGAN.

EXHIBIT OF WORK OF THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

REPORT OF E. W. COY.

This included exhibits by institutions for the Deaf and Dumb, for the Blind, and for the Feeble Minded.

The Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, at Jacksonville, Illinois, had on exhibition:

1. *School work.* Ten volumes of examination papers, showing the regular work of twenty out of the thirty classes in the school. This work was very creditable and very interesting.

2. *Physical aids to hearing.* These consisted of tubes and combinations of tubes of various patterns, and other devices designed to facilitate communication between persons with impaired hearing.

3. *Art work.* Pen-and-ink sketches from nature; crayon from cast, and charcoal sketches from nature; oil portrait, a copy; studies in oil from nature; charcoal portrait from nature, taken in one and one-half hours; photo-crayon portrait.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Delavan, Wisconsin, exhibited specimens of class work and photographs; boots and shoes; crayon and charcoal sketches from nature.

The Wisconsin School for the Blind, at Janesville, Wisconsin, had a very full exhibit. Two departments were represented, namely, the Literary, and the Industrial.

1. *The Literary.* Dissected map, and pricked outline maps, made for the blind. Also, paper maps, and clay maps made by the blind. Pencil writing and point writing. They use the New York point instead of the Braille point, which is used in the Illinois institution. Kindergarten work, clay modelling. The celebration of Washington's Birthday and of Decoration Day represented in clay; farm-life in clay; farm products; Jack and the bean-stalk; weaving, cutting, and sewing, daisy chains.

2. *The Industrial.* Carpet weaving, hammock and fly-nets; cane-seating, brooms, specimens of sawing by hand and by machine; crocheting and knitting, plain and fancy.

The Illinois Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children, at Lincoln, Ill., exhibited specimens of kindergarten work and other school exercises, and a large number of articles from their industrial department, among which may be mentioned garments sewed, and stockings and mittens knit, by the inmates; boots and shoes, hammered brass, and specimens of woodcarving. Some of the work in this department was remarkably well done, and those in charge spoke most hopefully of the benefit which they expected would come to these unfortunate children from this source. The over-zealous advocate of manual training might find here some important suggestions as to the degree of mental capacity requisite for success in this work.

No intelligent teacher could study these exhibits of what is being done for the defective classes without deriving from them many valuable lessons. We will mention here but one of these lessons, viz.: that of patience. The teachers who have to deal with these classes find that many of the avenues of approach by which ordinary minds may be reached are cut off or obstructed. But with a patience that is almost divine, they discover and invent ways and means of awakening the dormant intelligence; and they succeed so well in developing and training it, that the results accomplished are a source of wonder and admiration to every beholder. If in spite of the obstacles and discouragement that beset their path, the teachers of these pupils are able to do so much, surely the ordinary teacher, in the far less difficult task of dealing with those who are in possession of all their natural powers and faculties, should not lose heart or hope in his work.

E. W. COY.

MANUAL TRAINING.

REPORT OF JAMES H. BAKER.

The special work assigned me upon your committee was to examine and report upon the Manual Training exhibits of the high schools, including those of the Chicago Manual Training School and the Hebrew Technical Institute of New York. There were represented the high schools of Omaha, Springfield (Mass.), Toledo, Chicago, and Eau Claire. I viewed the exhibits and noted in a very general way the character of the work. Thinking it to be the duty of the committee not to discriminate in regard to the excellence of the exhibits, but rather to obtain an idea of the methods employed and the general educational value of manual training. I also sent a list of questions to the school officers of each town mentioned and obtained replies which are presented in the accompanying table. I may state here, however, that I found no good reason for founding a report upon comparison of the work of the different schools, because essentially the same idea was the basis of all the exhibits; and the extent and excellence of the drawing and the work in wood and metal seemed to depend upon the facilities and the amount of time given to this department. Of the high schools, the Toledo made the best showing, because the department is fully equipped and more time is allowed it than in the other high schools. The Chicago manual training school gives approximately half its time to manual work, and consequently produces more advanced results in that line.

In the Toledo high school there is also a domestic economy department for girls, in which instruction is given in "cooking upon scientific princi-

Name of School.	Is Manual Training introduced in the grades below the High School?	Work voluntary or compulsory?	Are any academic studies omitted for shop work?	Hours per week given to Manual Training. Pursued how many yrs. of the course?	Work done in school hours or outside?	Per cent. of boys choosing this work?	How does the Manual Training affect the excellence of the academic work?	Manual Training defended upon what ground?	Character of the work in each year of the High School?
Omaha High School, Neb. (Course 4 yrs.)	8th Grade. (Next High School.)	Voluntary.	No.	7½ hrs. per week. 4 yrs.	In school hrs., except one class ½ hour after school.	About 40 per cent.	Favorably if at all.	On the ground of general education; also preparation for industrial pursuits.	1st yr.—Carpenter work. 2d year.—Turning and pattern-making. 3d yr.—Work in brass. 4th yr.—Work in iron. Mechanical drawing throughout the course
Springfield High School, Mass. (course 4 yrs.)	9th Grade. (Next High School)	Voluntary.	No.	1½ to 2 hrs. per wk. 3 yrs.	High School Classes outside of school hours. Grammar school classes in school hours.	About 40 per cent. of the grades mentioned.	Not unfavorably; increases interest in school work.	General educational value; and because certain aptitudes are thus discovered and developed.	Carpenter work thus far. Classes from the 9th grade and from the first and second years of the High school.
Toledo High School, Ohio. (Course 3 yrs.)	Begin with a Grammar Grade.	Voluntary.	No.	In High School 7¼ hrs. in shop, 3¾ in drawing. 3 yrs. of H. S.	¾ hrs. daily outside of school hours.	About 50 per cent.	Unfavorably at first, but not after system was adjusted.	Wholly on ground of general educational value.	1st year. (A grammar grade)—use of tools; plain wood work. 2d yr. (H. S.)—Wood Turning and carving. 3d yr.—Pattern making forging, brazing, etc. 4th yr.—Working metals—iron. Free-hand and mechanical drawing throughout the course.
Chicago High Schools. (Course 4 yrs.)	No.	Voluntary.	No.	10 hrs. One year.	Partly in school hours; partly outside.	About 75 High School boys take the work.	Reported by one school unfavorably; if Manual Training is introduced, some other studies should be omitted.	Educational Value.	1st year.—Wood work; Drawing.
Hebrew Technical Institute of New York. (Course 3 yrs.)	Admitted after having passed 3d grade of Grammar Schools.			18 hrs. per wk., of which 8 are given to drawing. Full work 30 hrs. per week.		Required of all.	Not unfavorably.	As a training for industrial pursuits.	1st yr.—Work in wood. modelling in clay. 2d yr.—As above; also work in iron; wood-turning; wood-carving. 3d yr.—As above; also forging, pattern making, and some special work. Drawing throughout course.
Chicago Manual Training School. (Founded by the "Commercial Club." Course 3 yrs.)	Admitted at 14 yrs. Examined in Read., Spell., Writing, Comp., Geog., and Arith.			Intention to divide time equally between Manual and Mental Work.		Required of all.			1st year.—Carpentry, joinery, wood-turning, pattern-making. 2d yr.—Moulding, casting; forging, welding, tempering; soldering, brazing. 3d yr.—Chipping, filing, fitting, turning, drilling, planing, etc. Study of Machinery. Drawing throughout course.

ples and in the cutting and fitting of garments." The girls are permitted to take the drawing and wood work in the boys' department.

From answers to the circulars sent to these schools, and from reports forwarded, I draw in substance the following statements assigned as reasons for the introduction of manual training:—

1. It develops certain faculties not developed in ordinary school work.

2. It makes boys appreciate the practical value of the other studies; they perform their regular class work with more intelligence. It increases the interest of pupils in their school work, and tends to keep boys in the high school.

3. It gives an idea of the dignity of labor. It makes boys more manly. It furnishes wholesome employment for leisure hours. It brings the pupil in contact with the realities of practical life.

4. Scholars who devote half their study hours to manual exercises make equal progress in mental work with those who give all their study hours to it.

So far, I have permitted the schools to speak for themselves, endeavoring to present facts and opinions as forwarded to me. I should hardly regard my report as complete, however, without a brief discussion of the subject.

The work of high schools may be classed under the heads of mathematics, science, history and the English language and literature, foreign language, physical training. The work of these departments may be briefly stated. (1) MATHEMATICS. The high school period, approximately from fourteen to eighteen, is the time when the generalizing and reasoning faculties are first susceptible of a considerable degree of development. The power of exact deductive reasoning is to be trained by means of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. (2) SCIENCE. Scientific generalization is taught by means of elementary zoology and botany, while physics, physiology, and chemistry furnish the best exercise in inductive reasoning. Geology and astronomy furnish further exercise in the latter process, but find their highest use in an enlarged knowledge of the material world. (3) HISTORY AND THE ENGLISH LITERATURE AND LANGUAGE. While history and literature may be means of cultivating memory, imagination, generalization, and reasoning, their most important use is in enlarging the limited view of the pupil with the experience of the past and inspiring him with some of the best thoughts of the world's great minds. History furnishes materials for correct inductions in regard to state and society. In connection with history comes the study of civil government and political economy, which are necessary for the proper understanding of the relations and duties of the citizen. History and literature more directly than any other studies, lead to the study of mental science which may teach invaluable lessons as to the control and use of the faculties. As a part of mental science there should be presented a brief statement of the laws of reasoning—logic. The instrument of thought, language, cannot be neglected. Study of the English language, both the grammar and the rhetoric, is needed for accurate and forcible expression. In the high school this work may be done in connection with literature. (4) FOREIGN LANGUAGE. To this point our way seems clear, but there is a great controversy about the value of foreign language in a high-school course. The classical languages are a more direct road to "culture" than any other line of work mentioned. The Latin is in an important sense the key to several modern tongues; it may be used to train memory, judgment, generalization, and reasoning, and to gain a knowledge of the principles of language. The incidental value of modern languages is not so great, and the chief argument in their defence is that of utility, that is, they may be the means of intercourse and of acquaintance with foreign, literary, and scientific thought. (5) PHYSICAL TRAINING. Such exercises as speaking, singing, writing, drawing, gymnastics, military drill, tend to give the mind control of the bodily organs, which control may afterwards be directed to special aptitudes.

In the above statements the use of studies as a discipline has been made prominent. The knowledge obtained of important facts and principles is understood also to be an essential feature of a course of study.

Let us see the results of the different lines of study. The reasoning power is developed; the other intellectual faculties are further cultivated; incidentally the emotions and the will are trained, that is, the taste is cultivated and character is formed, an elementary knowledge is gained of nature, of man, in state and society, and of man as the individual self; language, as the instrument of thought, is sharpened and polished. The doctrinal religious element is left to the church and the family. There is hardly a study in the typical high-school course by which all the intellectual faculties are not cultivated directly or indirectly to a considerable degree, except perception, and this power is trained in special ways, as by drawing. In regard to perception most educators now agree that, from the kindergarten up, the mind is to be brought in contact with things to an extent sufficient to train the sense-discrimination and give clear ideas. Hence the visual and tactile senses are exercised upon form, figure, and dimension, by drawing, moulding, etc., and the observation is directed to specimens and experiments. It is hardly necessary to state that perception is trained at an early period; that memory and imagination are successfully cultivated before the grammar-school period; that abstraction and generalization are considerably developed before the high school is reached; and that this development of faculty is effected by means of the regular studies of the schools.

Now, when any advocate of manual training states that it develops certain faculties not developed in ordinary school work, I must think that the subject has not been analyzed. There is no mental faculty of power known to the psychologist which is not systematically trained by regular school work, and the only sense which manual work in wood and metal trains to a much greater extent is the muscular sense. Moreover not a single concept is furnished by manual work which is not acquired in drawing. As to the statement that manual-training pupils, giving only half-time to regular studies, accomplish as much with them as pupils giving full time to them, I must, in view of the principle of conservation of energy, regard it as a case of enthusiastic mal-observation. The statement that manual work may make pupils more intelligent in their regular studies may be true as to a few applications of mathematics and physics; and the fact that the taste of many boys turns towards construction may make it possible that manual work will increase their interest in the school as a whole, but hardly in their regular studies. That manual work gives an idea of the dignity of labor and brings the mind in contact with the realities of practical life cannot be doubted.

If I understand the advocates of manual training for high schools, most of them claim that its purpose is general education as contrasted with special education; that is, it is equally good for the boy who is to be a lawyer and the boy who is to be a mechanic. Assuming this to be so, and that it is not the purpose of the State to educate in the professions, trades, and industries, since there would be no limit to special demands, if our previous analysis is correct, manual training can claim but a small place or no place at all in high-school work. From the nature of the case and from an examination of courses of study in schools where a large portion of the time is given to manual work, in order to make room for this work the tendency is to lop off such sciences as botany, geology, and astronomy, to limit the study of history and literature, to omit entirely psychology and logic, and even foreign languages, both classical and modern. Such omissions seem of no small consequence, if the high school is to maintain its position as the "college of the people."

It seems a plain fact that manual training can be defended only as special education; it is general only in the sense that it teaches the elements of mechanics and may thus open the way to special pursuits requiring skill in the use of tools. Should it be introduced into high schools for a limited class of pupils who have little aptitude for literary work, but have a leaning toward manual skill and intend to be mechanics in the capacity of workmen, overseers, or inventors? I conceive that this depends upon the wishes of the people, the cost, etc. If it should be introduced, certainly boys should not be unduly urged to choose this work, and the time allotted to the department should be carefully limited.

No doubt the tendency of manual training is to make mechanics. Much is said about the fact that many boys, graduating from high schools, continue their studies in college, enter the professions, or accept clerkships. Has any one yet discovered a reasonable objection to this ? I have investigated the occupations of the graduates of one typical high school ; the occupations were various and in most cases well chosen. Engineers, farmers, mechanics, stockmen, etc., were by no means wanting. Are not all the occupations crowded ? Are mechanics in greater demand than any other class of skilled laborers ?

Private manual training schools have a place, but they are schools of special education. The amount of time given to work with tools makes them one-sided, and pupils entering them should have a definite purpose in view.

I will venture to make a few summary statements :—

1. Manual training, that is, work with tools in wood and metal, does very little to educate mental faculty, in addition to what is accomplished by regular studies and exercises. It cannot be defended upon the ground of general education.

2. It furnishes no concepts not acquired in drawing.

3. If a large amount of time is spent in this department it must be at the sacrifice of other work.

4. Manual work in its broader sense should be a part of the regular studies from the kindergarten to the high school.

5. Private manual training schools in which much of the time is given to manual work may be an advantage to a class of boys whose time for education is limited, provided they have chosen their occupation.

6. If a manual training school is supported at the public expense in connection with any system of schools, it should be centrally located, and be open to the upper grammar grades as well as certain high-school classes. The work should be voluntary, and should be performed outside of school hours. The time should be carefully limited, that it may not interfere with regular studies.

Respectfully submitted,

JAMES H. BAKER.

The exhibit as a whole was probably the most extensive and the most creditable exhibit of industrial and manual work in schools ever made in this country. It showed conclusively that we have taken a long step forward in this direction, and that manual training has secured a permanent place in the hearts of the friends of education in this republic. It is no longer a question whether manual training is important, but it can scarcely yet be regarded as determined that it should take its place in our public school system by the side of the spelling-book and the arithmetic.

We are making rapid strides in all educational matters, both as regards principles and methods, but there are many questions demanding careful and considerate thought. Such gatherings as that at Chicago, and such exhibits as were there made, aid materially in solving the great problems with which the educators of our country have to deal.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

W. A. MOWRY,
Chairman.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBIT FROM GRADED SCHOOLS.

To Aaron Gove, *Chairman.*

Dear Sir:—In accordance with your request, I inspected the graded-school work displayed at the Educational Exhibit, held in connection with the meeting of the National Educational Association, at Chicago, July, 1887. I was unable to give to it the time and attention it deserved, and, in consequence, can make only a limited report. The exhibit, in fact, was so enormous, that it would have required the individual attention of several experts, during the whole week, in order to do it any justice.

A very large proportion of the graded work came from the State of Illinois; many counties and all the prominent cities being represented, including all the grammar schools and high schools in Chicago.

Wisconsin furnished the next largest exhibit, and made a very creditable showing of various kinds of work. Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota, had work on exhibition from several counties. Other states were represented by work from single localities.

It is not a part of this report to designate any one locality as excelling all others. There was some very superior work, much that was excellent, and but little that could be called inferior. In truth, when we consider all the circumstances under which such work is often done, much that seems poorest, as we look at it, deserves the highest praise.

The cursory examination which I was able to make, brought the following points to my attention:

1. *Penmanship.* There appeared to be a uniform improvement in the penmanship of most schools, up to the fourth grade. The fifth grade showed less improvement; and after that there was a marked deterioration, running sometimes through the high-school classes; although, in these higher grades, the individuality of the child's character showed itself in the handwriting. In many cases, less individuality and more attention

to principles would render the penmanship more legible. Again, the penmanship is best in those schools in which pen and ink is introduced in the second grade, or, as in some schools, in the first year. In many cases this feature was very marked, and seemed to decide the case against the lead pencil, or the use of the slate.

2. *Arithmetic.* The work in this branch, as a whole, was excellent. The greatest deficiency was in the character of the figures made by the pupils. They were not as good, in proportion, as the penmanship. There seemed to be no fixed rules or principles, prominent as guides, in making the figures used in the work. The papers, in many instances, showed room for great improvement in this direction. There was also a manifest difference in the character of the work, in the corresponding grades of different schools.

"How many postage stamps can be bought for twelve cents?" "What is one-half of six apples?" seemed to be regarded, in some cases, as fair third-grade work. In another case, it took eight lines to solve the question, "If a man earns $45 in nine days, how much can he earn in one week?" This was fourth-grade work. In most cases, however, the arithmetical work was well graded. I only call attention to the above, to show the great necessity of guarding against that style of "number work" that leaves out of sight the discipline which there is in that study, even for the younger children.

3. *Language.* There was a marked absence of technical grammar, while what we term "Language" was very prominent. There were many descriptions of pictures, stories reproduced, letters, and original compositions. The work, in general, was well done, and evinced remarkable proficiency. There was, however, one very noticeable deficiency. Whole pages, in some cases, were displayed, in which the penmanship was good, the use of capitals correct, but no attention paid to punctuation. In a large number of instances, the punctuation was so defective as to show that the pupil had had no practical training in punctuating his composition.

4. *Geography.* The geographical work showed a marked tendency towards an improved system of teaching. There was less attention paid to the unimportant items, which are forgotten as soon as recited, and more attempts to fix in the child's mind the general outlines and features of the various countries, which they were studying. This was especially noticeable in the maps, many of which were prepared with great care and accuracy.

5. *History.* The improvement in methods of teaching this branch was not as general as in those of teaching geography. There was more of a disposition to cling to the exact words of the text, or, in some cases, to substitute the language of the pupil for that of the book, at the expense of elegance and correctness.

The best work in this branch came from schools in which the pupils were taught to group important events and dates; to arrange those of a certain period in the form of a synopsis; or, to illustrate the history of a portion of a country by the construction of maps.

In one school which I noticed, the pupils had evidently been encouraged to reproduce anecdotes of eminent persons, and to memorize extracts from the best writers bearing upon historical persons or events; this plan has many excellent points.

6. *Physiology*. There was much excellent work exhibited in this branch. In the higher grades the work was accompanied by drawings, many of which were exceedingly accurate. In the lower grades there was an evident attempt to do too much. It would be better, perhaps, to say that the work was too technical for young children to attempt. Until the boy can distinguish the correct use of "too" and "two;" of "there," and "their;" as long as he spells care, "cair," and where, "whar," it hardly seems worth the while to ask him to describe the heart or the process of digestion.

7. *Miscellaneous*. There are other items which deserve brief mention. The work in drawing, both in quality and in quantity, exceeded the expectation of all concerned. This branch has gained for itself a permanent position as one of the necessary branches of common school education.

There was a great difference in the quality of the paper used in preparing the manuscripts. The same was true of the binding. Some of the best and most creditable work was displayed in the most inexpensive binding. Many of the covers, especially from the Chicago schools, were tastefully decorated, the work in some cases being done by the pupils.

It was impossible to judge of the relative value of the work done by pupils, because in so many cases, there was no record of the age of the writer. The same remark is true of the important element of time. In one case, three hours and thirty minutes were taken to answer ten questions; but, in the majority of cases, the length of time allotted to the work was not given

Conclusion. I have gone over this work in a manner not satisfactory to me by any means. As far as the graded school work is to be estimated by such manuscripts and drawings, the exhibit may be considered a success. There was nothing in the work displayed to discourage any one; on the contrary, there was much to make us "take heart and push on."

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY SABIN.

REPORT ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

To AARON GOVE, *Chairman.*

It is noticeable as shown by the exhibits from the normal schools that the drift of instruction and training in them is more in the direction of professional skill than in former years; there seems to be much less of the dogmatic—less of the instruction that may be designated as "words, words, words," and more that calls for individual assimilation on the part of the students, and compels them to do things, as well as to remember maxims, principles, and routine methods.

This is illustrated in the exhibit, by the specimens of off hand sketches and black-board drawing; in the hundreds of things in the way of apparatus made by the normal students; in the lesson work, which is more in the region of thought and less in the line of echoing the text-book or the lessons of the professor.

There is manifestly less in the normal school of 1887, of "the best way to do it," and more of the spirit of adaptation, that gives room for both teacher and pupil to be less mechanical and more creative in the processes of education.

H. S. JONES.

REPORT ON WORK OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

To MR. GEO. P. BROWN, *Chairman.*

The great drawback to any exhibition of school work lies in the fact that it is not and, in the nature of the case, cannot be truly representative. The most essential part of school work everywhere is incapable of concrete representation or even of record. Then, in any case, comparatively few schools attempt any exhibit at all; and these few are of the better sort, the more enterprising and progressive,—or, rather, those having the most enterprising administration. The conservative and the indolent—and there is not much difference between the two—make no endeavor at representation; and these are the majority, the thickest stratum. And all this is doubly true of the rural or country schools.

Careful search by this committee failed to discover any representation from rural schools outside the two States of Illinois and Wisconsin. The work found included examination papers, map drawings, penmanship. language exercises, with some specimens of drawing, kindergarten work, and other products of objective and manual training.

In the Illinois exhibit, work was shown from country schools in a dozen or more of counties. One of the most interesting of these county exhibits was that from Peoria county, Mrs. Mary W. Emery, superintendent. The striking feature of this was the quantity and quality of manual work by girls, embroidery, lace, and needle-work, showing that this sort of work has been to a considerable extent engrafted upon the common school work of that county. The boys cut a less figure, doing it chiefly with their jack-knives—the whittling-school idea—the result being not indicative, as yet, of any very profitable outcome. Ought not every county to have two school superintendents, a woman and a man?

Winnebago county showed signs of the needle-work tendency, with some kindergarten work, botanical mounts, etc., from country schools. Knox county also deserves special mention for the amount and variety of country work exhibited, especially the variety of exercise-books, the applications of kindergarten ideas, and a modest essay at clay-modelling.

The exhibit from the rural schools of Cook county would seem to have deserved first mention, did we not consider that they lie nearer to the "*State of Chicago*" than to Illinois proper. While Cook county has, surprising as it may seem, 160 schools of but one teacher each, these schools yet differ radically from the typical country school in two important particulars,—they lie under the very eaves of Chicago with its thorough system and high standard, and, better still, they enjoy at the hands of Superintendent Lane and his assistant, Mr. Wadhams, a supervision as minute and thorough as that of any city in the land. Surely these are no country schools. The lowest of them are graded into five regular grades with stated examinations for promotion. It is needless to say that their exhibit was highly creditable to the schools and, most of all, to their superintendence.

In the Wisconsin exhibit, not more than four or five counties made any showing of country school work. That from Pepin county was quite creditable, and some pieces from Calumet county were of special suggestiveness and value, consisting of home-made apparatus, such as reading charts and other appliances for teaching, constructed by a rural teacher.

It is bare justice, however, to say that the most instructive and really profitable country school exhibit in the whole exposition was that made by Sauk county, Wis. This is essentially a forest county, broad in extent, broken in surface, and "truly rural" in all its conditions. Its extensive display of kindergarten work and drawing, representing a large number of separate schools, was therefore a thorough surprise to many, as also its work in language lessons after the most modern manner, in map drawing and botanical mounting. Setting aside Cook county, Ill., as only quasi-rural, this is undeniably the banner county of the exposition. But the secret of its excellence, as in Cook county, is to be found in the excellent supervision which it has enjoyed for many years.

Passing to consider the more general aspects of the rural exhibit and its lessons, so far as any can be safely drawn, it must be said, first of all, that they are hopeful. We are all so familiar with the wail that country schools are no better than they were a generation ago, and we see so many reasons why they cannot soon become thoroughly good, that we are apt to concede to the pessimists more than is necessary or just. Grant that but few schools were represented at Chicago and that these few are exceptional; grant that "one swallow doesn't make a summer;" and it still remains that there are swallows, that there are country schools which have felt, and vitally, the touch of modern ideas and methods.

This Chicago exhibition would seem to have demonstrated what many have not believed possible, namely, that kindergarten ideas can be engrafted upon the public school work, even in the "rural districts"; and also that the drift towards the objective and concrete in education is general, and not local or urban only.

Another and even more important thing exposed to every one who chose to read it, was the visible fact that country schools can be and are being graded, that they are not necessarily or normally "without form and void." In both the States represented, the "grading system in country schools" is under good headway. Indeed, nearly, if not quite, every one of the country schools making exhibits at Chicago makes some show of being graded, for the most part into three general zones of work, called "forms" in Wisconsin, "departments" in Illinois.

It would be instructive, though not quite germane to the specific purpose of this report, to make some exposition of this movement towards the grading of country schools and the differences in the method between these two neighboring States; but space will not permit. A few more specific matters, however, call for brief attention. As to map-drawing, we might infer from the elaborateness of the work shown, that the country schools are now in the trough of that sea from which the higher schools have now pretty well emerged. That would doubtless be an unsafe inference; but it is evident that we have not all arrived, as yet at a correct understanding of the purposes and limitations of map-drawing.

In the matter of penmanship, while many fine specimens were shown, and much pains taken with the work sent, it is clear from the examination papers that the ordinary writing of country pupils is far from what it should and might be. The average pupil of fourteen has not acquired a settled and legible hand-writing. There is need of more and better practice in writing in the schools.

A more satisfactory phenomenon is found in the evidence that more rational methods of teaching the mother-tongue are finding their way into the rural schools, methods which train observation as well as expression, and combine instruction in language and general knowledge.

Much of the work exhibited would have had greater value to the observer if the age of the pupil had been uniformly given, that being of more moment than his name, which never failed to appear.

Should this report be found not to conform in every respect to the observation of others, something must be attributed to the medium through which everything was seen, a thickly peopled atmosphere at 95 degrees in the shade.

ALBERT SALISBURY, } *Committee.*
W. J. BRIER, }

REPORT ON THE EXHIBITION OF THE ART DEPARTMENT.

GEORGE P. BROWN, *Chairman.*

Dear Sir:—The exhibit of the Art Department at the annual meeting of the National Educational Association, held in Chicago, July 15—18, 1887, was in many respects the most valuable one, educationally considered, that has ever been made. There were exhibits of public school work in drawing, from Chicago; St. Louis; Columbus, Ohio; Worcester, Massachusetts; Cincinnati, Cleveland, Moline, Toledo, etc., as well as a full exhibit of representative work from the Massachusetts Normal Art School, an institution which has influenced most largely art instruction in public schools.

One could not help seeing the growth made since the Madison exhibit, in 1884. This does not mean that there is not still much waste in the instruction, or that there were not many vagaries indulged in, and not a few bad drawings exhibited; but enough unanimity as to a rational standard was evinced, sufficient to show that the study has been carried to a point which places it beyond the character of an experiment.

In order to present an intelligent criticism upon the work exhibited, it will be necessary to consider briefly the history of drawing, such features of instruction as are now recognized as forming the proper basis for teaching, and how they have been established.

It was in 1860, that drawing first appeared on the programme of the Boston public schools, and from that time, and place, may be dated the birth of the work. The passing of an act by the legislature of Massachusetts, in 1870, making drawing one of the studies in the public schools, and also making the establishment of free drawing classes for adults obligatory upon all towns and cities, with the calling of Mr. Walter Smith from England, in 1872, and the founding of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, in 1873, are milestones marking epochs of growth.

In July, 1879, Mr. John S. Clark, of Boston, in an address before the University of the State of New York, first proposed a classification of drawing into the three subjects of construction, representation, and decoration. Previous to this, as in England even now, the term free-hand was applied only to copying from the flat, while other work, done just as much with the free hand, was spoken of as model and object drawing; yet model and object drawing involved a knowledge of perspective, but no one applied the term perspective to it, but to another class of work, which was done with instruments, so that to the popular mind, terms and subjects were very much confused, and Mr. Clark's classification was a universal relief, hence its ready adoption. This classification bases itself on the difference between the structure, the appearance, and the ornamentation of form.

While other cities have also engaged in solving the problem, yet to the Massachusetts movement is due the intellectual and educational thought which has given impetus and vigor to the work, and which has lifted it to its present position.

Hon. John D. Philbrick, Mr. C. C. Perkins, and Dr. A. A. Miner, are too closely interwoven with the progress and success of the work to omit mentioning, and their names must ever remain dear to the pioneer teachers and students of that time. In the future, when free art instruction has become a realized fact, the unselfishness and devotion of the Massachusetts leaders will be recognized as it is not now. There have been other art schools, excellent in many respects, but none that have so influenced public sentiment, or opened the doors of art instruction to the common people, as the Massachusetts Normal Art School.

During the past fifteen years, the character of the work in the public schools has been considerably modified; the work in kindergarten and manual training has very much influenced its methods of teaching, and somewhat changed its direction. Instead of existing as a special study for special ends, it has been lifted to a broader and more pedagogical platform, and is now taught as a necessary element in general training, because of its æsthetic and educational values. The study has not yet reached its full and proper extension and development, but so much has been accomplished that the character of the work to be done, and the best methods of instruction to pursue can be predicated.

At the annual meeting of the Educational Association, held at Madison, in July, 1884, a committee, chosen at the previous meeting of the Association, at Saratoga, made an exhaustive report upon the general condition of drawing in the public schools of the country. The inquiries of the committee were very thorough; they found such a wide diversity in methods of instruction prevailing, as well as in results obtained, that they were induced to recommend a somewhat detailed course of instruction for primary, grammar, high, and normal schools.

This course of instruction was the first course in drawing prepared for public schools, entitled to be considered authoritative. The chairman of this committee was the Honorable James MacAlister, superintendent of public schools of Philadelphia. Associated with him were Professor Otto Fuchs, of the Maryland School of Industrial Design, and formerly principal of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, the supervisor of drawing in the public schools of St. Louis and Columbus, as well as the instructor of drawing in the Chicago high schools. The competency, therefore, of this committee to pass upon the question of what should be taught as drawing in public schools, either from an educational or technical point of view, will not be questioned. The course of study recommended in this report, was based upon the observations of the committee in a number of schools where good work was being produced, and its general features were as follows:

In primary schools, that perception of form should be the basis of the instruction. The course should begin with the study of solid models, and the plane geometric forms derived from them; then should follow the study of objects based on these solids, and irregular forms. Pupils to mould the solid forms, the plane forms, and common objects; also to make simple arrangements of them, and then to draw the solids, the plane forms, the objects, and the arrangements.

In the grammar course, acquisition of principles should be aimed at; the instruction of the primary course should be developed into the subjects of constructive drawing, representative drawing, and decorative drawing.

In the high-school course, these three subject divisions should be carried to their technical applications in constructive, pictorial and decorative drawing and designing.

Models and objects should be used as the basis of instruction throughout the entire course.

The course recommended by the committee, was received with general favor, and has been adopted in many of the best schools of the country. It is a course which recognizes the practical value of drawing in the vocations of common life. It also recognizes the great value of drawing in education, as a means of æsthetic culture. It was not a matter of surprise, therefore, to find in the Chicago exhibition, a number of exhibits of well developed courses of study in drawing, conducted according to the plan recommended by the above committee.

The exhibit comprised:—

FROM PRIMARY GRADES.

1. Clay modelling of (a) geometric forms, (b) natural, irregular and life forms, in the round and in semi-relief, omitting all recognition of the perspective of surface. 2. Stick laying, with reproduction of line work of geometric and irregular forms. 3. Paper folding and cutting. 4. Reproduction of ornamental line work by stitching, embroidery, etc. 5. Color work, the laying of flat tints, either with colored crayons, or with the brush, to separate and distinguish an ornament from its background.

FROM GRAMMAR GRADE.

1. Construction work in paper, cardboard, wood, tin, etc.

Classified Drawing.
- (a) construction drawing,
  - working drawings;
  - geometric problems;
  - working to scale;
  - constructive design.
- (b) representation drawing,
  - freehand perspective from the object;
  - pictorial composition.
- (c) decoration,
  - ornament from the flat;
  - leaves, and sprays of leaves from nature;
  - original arrangement, illustrating design.

FROM NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. Photographic illustrations of blackboard exercises. 2. Modelling in clay; (a) from the round; (b) from flat copies; (c) original design; (d) translation from casts. 3. Work in color; (a) the use of flat tints in design; (b) representing foliage from nature. 4. Drawings, classified, and covering the same course as the grammar grades, but extending the several subjects farther, using both pencil and charcoal for line work.

FROM HIGH SCHOOLS.

1. Studies in light and shade from the cast, and from models; original compositions; still life. 2. Studies in water color; (a) harmony of color; (b) industrial design; (c) foliage from nature and still life. 3. Drawings of machines and portions of machines, both line work and shaded. 4. Orthographic projections. 5. Advanced geometry. 6. Architectural drawings, plans, elevations, and sections of buildings. 7. Pictorial work from flat copies, such as heads, landscapes, etc.

FROM MASSACHUSETTS NORMAL ART SCHOOL.

CLASS PREPARATORY.

1. Sheets of geometric problems. 2. Sheets of perspective problems. 3. Sheets of orthographic projection. 4. Sheets of model drawing (outline). 5. Sheets of model drawing, shaded with stump. 6. Sheets of model drawing, shaded in india ink. 7. Sheets of elementary exercises in design, showing principles and mode of procedure. 8. Sheets of botanical analysis. 9. Sheets of outlines of furniture. 10. Sheets of outlines of foliage (nature). 11. Sheets of outlines of historic ornament. 12. Sheets of outlines of illustrations of elementary drawings.

The numbers 1, 2, 3, etc., refer to the subjects taught in each class.

CLASS A.

1. Sheets of geometric problems. 2. Sheets of perspective problems. 3. Sheets of orthographic projection. 4. Sheets of projection of shadows. 5. Sheets of machine drawing. 6. Sheets of building construction. 7. Sheets of model drawing (outline). 8. Sheets of model drawing, shaded in water color (monochrome). 9. Sheets of model drawing, shaded in charcoal, three stages. 10. Sheets of details, showing methods of giving black and white values to colors. 11. Sheets of model drawing, shaded in crayon. 12. Sheets of details of human figure, from cast, showing,—1, blocking, in lines; 2, finished outline; 3, breadth of shade indicated by half-tint. 13. Sheets of outline of animal form, from cast. 14. Sheets of ornament from cast, shaded in chalk. 15. Sheets of ornament from cast, shaded in sepia or india ink. 16. Sheets of exercises in design, showing principles and methods. 17. Sheets of original, practical designs, for the flat or round. 18. Sheets of analysis of plant and insect form, from nature, for the purpose of design. 19. Sheets of analysis of styles of historic ornament.

CLASS B.

Paintings in water colors. 1. Sheets of flowers and foliage, from nature. 2. Sheets of groups, as studies for composition and color. 3. Sheets of water color painting, showing studies from still life, in both monochrome and color. *Drawings.* 4. Sheets of heads, from life, (charcoal). 5. Sheets of studies of antique figure, from cast. 6. Sheets of skeletons of same. 7. Sheets of muscles of same. 8. Sheets of studies of detail and action from the living model. 9. Sheets of studies of living model. 10. Sheets of perspective shadows, reflections and aerial effects. *Painting in oil.* 11. Studies in monochrome, from still life. 12. Groups—studies of composition and color. *Design in color.* 13. Sheets of details, comprising the human, animal, and plant forms, for the purpose of design. 14. Sheets of full-size original practical designs, for stained glass windows worked to scale, and working drawings for the leading of the same.

CLASS C.

Architectural design, and building construction. 1 Sheets of designs for houses and public buildings, showing plans, elevations, sections, and perspective. 2. Sheets of structural details on an enlarged scale of floors, windows, roof, and staircase, of the first subject. 3. Sheets of monographs of the ancient, mediæval, or modern styles of architecture and ornament. 4. Sheets of drawings of buildings to scale from actual measurement, of the structure, plans, and two geometric elevations. *Design.* 5. Sheets of original constructive designs, and enrichment, with full-size working drawings of same. *Machine drawing.* 6. Sheets of screws, and application of screw forms. 7. Sheets of wheels, spur, bevel, cams, eccentrics, gearing. 8. Sheets of plans, elevation, and section of a locomotive or engine (from copy). 9. Sheets of drawings to scale, from a drill, pump, or other machine. 9. Sheets of details of same, prepared for shop. *Descriptive geometry.* 10. Sheets of illustrations in outline, from lectures on descriptive geometry, development of surfaces. 11. Sheets of intersections of solids, and projection of shadows (tinted). 12. Sheets of ship-draughting, lines of a boat.

CLASS D.

Original practical designs for sculptured ornament. No casts were exhibited.

FROM MECHANICS' INSTITUTE, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK.

FIRST YEAR MECHANICAL CLASS.

1. A sheet of geometrical problems, with applications. 2. A sheet of orthographic projection, and sections of solids. 3. A sheet of intersection of solids, and development of surfaces. 4. A sheet of structural details, as applied to machine and architectural drawing.

SECOND YEAR MACHINE CLASS.

1. A sheet of orthographic projection from the solid. 2. A sheet of intersections and developments of surfaces from solids. 3. A sheet of isometric projection. 4. Principles of screw construction. 5. Machinery drawn to scale from free-hand sketches, with measurements. 6. Pulleys and belting, gearing.

ARCHITECTURAL CLASS.

1. A sheet of orthographic projection of solids. 2. A sheet of intersection and development of surfaces of solids. 3. A sheet of isometric projection. 4. A sheet of mouldings and cornices, with sections. 5. Plans and elevations of a building. 6. Details of the same.

FIRST YEAR FREE-HAND CLASS.

1. A sheet of geometric forms, in pencil outline. 2. A sheet of outline of ornament, from the blackboard 3. A sheet of outline of ornament, from the copy. 4. A sheet of free-hand perspective, from the blackboard. 5. A sheet of model drawing from cartoon, or from the solids. 6. A sheet of the elements of light and shade, from the blackboard. 7. A sheet of model drawing, shaded from cartoon, or from the solids. 8. A sheet of objects, shaded from cartoon, or from object.

SECOND YEAR FREE-HAND CLASS.

1. A sheet of outline from models. 2. A sheet of models, shaded. 3. A sheet of outline, from cast. 4. A sheet of shaded from cast. 5. A sheet of outline from object. 6. A sheet of objects, shaded.

FIRST YEAR DESIGN CLASS.

1. Outline ornament from copy. 2. Geometrical problems, with applications. 3. Original geometrical designs in pencil. 4. Original application of geometrical problems. 5. Historic ornament. 6. Elementary design constructed within a twelve-inch circle. 7. Conventional plant forms. 8. Applied design.

SECOND YEAR FREE-HAND CLASS.

1. Outline ornament from copy. 2. Original geometrical designs in pencil. 3. Outline ornament from cast. 4. Original application of geometrical problems. 5. Historic ornament from copy, colored or shaded. 6. Elementary design, colored or shaded. 7. Botanical analysis of a plant, colored. 8. Applied design.

It must not be understood that each city or school exhibiting had a classification answering to the above. These are the distinguishing features which were found scattered here and there. Some schools and cities had their work much better classified than others. There were exhibits from schools which seemed to be pursuing the study according to individual ideas, and in many cases it was extremely difficult to see the particular object or aim of the instruction. They made sudden jumps from one kind of work to another, but did not show a systematized growth.

For purpose of intelligent criticism, therefore, upon the exhibition as a whole, the exhibits may be divided into two classes: (a) Those which showed well-graded work through the several years of the schools, leading to well-defined ends. (b) Incomplete and disconnected courses.

Among the first class should be placed the exhibits from the special schools, like the Massachusetts Normal Art School, the Pennsylvania Museum of Industrial Art, the Mechanics Institute of Rochester; while from public schools there were the exhibits from the primary and grammar schools of Chicago; the primary, grammar, and normal schools of St. Louis; the Winona Normal School; the primary, grammar, and high schools of Worcester, Mass.; the primary, grammar, and high schools of Columbus, O.

Taking these exhibits in order, we have first the exhibit of the Massachusetts Normal Art School. The exhibit from this school was the most striking feature of the whole exhibition, as it showed to what broad, practical, and educational ends public instruction in drawing in America is tending. No person, familiar with the work of this school in years past, could have failed to notice the very great broadening of the instruction in nearly every direction. There was an absence of the laborious, painstaking, detail style, characteristic of previous years, the technique was exceptionally good, as was also the artistic freedom and finish; the normal instruction, too, has completely changed under the influence of the work in public schools. Indeed, the instruction in all the departments seems to be on a very much broader educational basis than in past years. It is not the province of this school to train artists or specialists, but rather teachers; and one could not help feeling, in looking at some of the excellent work exhibited, that if such work was being done by teachers, by those who were to use their artistic acquirements in public school work, public education would be largely enriched and benefitted thereby. It is only just to say, we are indebted to the Massachusetts Normal Art School for much of the good work that is now done in the public schools. Until the establishment of this school, there was no standard for what should be taught as drawing in public schools; and not until its students had clearly proved the practicability of teaching the subject in public schools, and also showed what should be taught as drawing, was it possible to lay out a course in drawing for public schools, which should be logically and educationally graded on the basis of the subject matter to be taught. It was largely from observations of the public school work done by students from this school that the committee were enabled to lay out their course of study in the report referred to.

The whole course of instruction seems to be eminently practical, and to be tending more and more, through its provisions for normal teaching, towards lifting up public school work.

The Pennsylvania Museum showed most excellent and very unique work in applied design, the manufactured article in each case accompanying the original drawing. The color work and work in light and shade was equally good and showed broad artistic treatment.

The Mechanics Institute of Rochester, N. Y., although just beginning its career, made a most promising exhibit; its work is twofold in character, both scientific and artistic.

Of primary and grammar schools, Toledo, Chicago, Worcester, Columbus, and St. Louis show the same classification of work; they follow the course adopted at Madison; the exhibits from these cities were decidedly the broadest and most connected of any district school work shown.

Of high schools, Columbus and Worcester agree very much in their methods and results. Omitting the feature of pictorial work from flat copies, they conform to the classification of high-school work as stated above; all that these schools showed was excellent, both in composition and execution; they may be styled the banner high schools of the country in drawing.

The Cincinnati exhibit, in its grammar and primary grades, as has been stated, is homogeneous in character, but the instruction begins and ends with flat copies. This would be less objectionable were the copies thus drawn some beautiful, historic forms, which would be worth remembering, and which would improve the taste of the pupil; but while nine-tenths of the work done was ornamental in character, the forms used as guides were not classic. The system begins with drawing squares, dividing their sides proportionately, and filling them with symmetrical patterns. A great deal of half-tint is used. This is a great consumer of time, and makes no educational return. Much care, accuracy, and neatness was observable in the reproduction of their copies by the pupils. The high-school work was very ambitious and contained some happy thoughts.

The St. Louis normal school seems to be on a solid educational basis; there was a largeness and freedom to its work, very refreshing; in pictorial composition, and in line work from the cast, it probably excelled all others. It is to be regretted that this school has not as yet done anything with light and shade or color. But a logical sequence pervaded all it did do, one step fitting directly into the next above. It appears to have carried clay modelling further than most schools of the same grade, and to have gotten a good deal out of it, using it to reproduce designs already drawn on paper. We should judge this school wasted neither time nor effort; everything seemed done with a purpose for some definite end.

The lesson of the exhibition, as a whole, was not a difficult one to read. The results exhibited will unquestionably have a great influence in henceforth shaping instruction in drawing in the public schools. It was clearly apparent that the study has come into the schools to stay, as one of the fundamental branches. It was also apparent from the work exhibited from the schools of Worcester, Columbus, St. Louis, and from the primary and grammar schools of Chicago, that a course of instruction has been found which will develop harmoniously the educational, industrial, and æsthetic features of the study. Hence cities and schools desiring to improve their work run no risk, but simply put themselves in line with their own highest good by following the course of study adopted at Madison.

To recapitulate: First, as to the character of public school instruction. It must be in the general subject of drawing, and not the developing of one side only. Thus practice in drawing ornament, or in plane geometry, may not be taught to the exclusion of free-hand perspective, and the study of the facts of form.

Second, it is not sufficient to practice drawing just because it is of assistance in illustrating other branches. The great classics in form, in line and in color, as in literature, must be studied for their own sake, because they are the most nutritious food for even the youngest minds.

Experience is that he who has been first trained in the study of regular and geometric forms from the object, makes wonderful progress when he comes into contact with irregular and complex forms; hence the practice of illustrative drawing must always be the outgrowth of a rational, systematic training in the general principles of drawing; as an authority says. "Those who have acquired a readiness of hand without correctness of study, have but the shadow instead of the substance." To put sleight of hand, or mere dexterity of manipulation first, is to exalt the frivolous and render difficult a return to serious artistic or scientific drawing. An art development, as the result of beginning with the pictorial and illustrative side has yet to be proven; it would probably result in a ratio comparable to that existing between Japanese and Greek art.

Third, the work must be at once progressive and continuous in its growth. The high school must be a continuation of the grammar; and the grammar, of the primary grades. It is not proper to introduce subjects and departments of work in grammar schools and high schools, when the same have not been handled in their elements, or under simpler conditions in the primary. Thus, if drawing from the object, or working advanced geometric problems belongs in the higher grades, so does a knowledge of simpler object drawing and simpler geometric forms, belong in the lower grades.

Fourth, instruction should begin with the free-hand, and not with instruments, because the former affords more exercise for the training of the judgment, the perception, and the intuitional faculties.

Fifth, all drawing must be based on sound pedagogical principles. Work done must be of a character to stand the tests of experience and philosophy. Meaningless lines and forms, like meaningless stories and trashy rhymes, are a waste of precious time and energy. Every drawing made by a pupil must definitely aim to develop either the intellectual or the æsthetic side of his nature, must provide nourishment for either his thought or his feeling; hence there must be no such thing as aimless copying of pictures or diagrams, because all such work permits a tyro to begin where a real or would-be master has left off. No instruction can be sound in practice, however pretentious its results, that is not first true pedagogically. So also, a rational development must not allow its theory to outstrip its practice. The simple before the complex, the concrete before the abstract, things before words, are axiomatic truths.

While there is a decided gain in the character of the exhibit, so that there is much less drawing from the flat and more from the object, yet the general school work is still too much in the imitative stage. True drawing should aim at being a translation rather than an imitation, it is a repeating of the same story in a different language. As Hegel says in his "Philosophy of Art:" "Of what use to reproduce that which nature already offers to our view? This puerile talk, unworthy of man's spirit, to which it is addressed, unworthy of man who produces it, would only end in the revelation of its impotency and the vanity of its efforts; for the copy will always remain inferior to the original. Besides, the more exact the imitation, the less vivid the pleasure. That which pleases us is not imitation, but creation. The very least invention surpasses all the masterpieces of imitation."

This is why no amount of old time picture making by tyros, such as copies of impossible landscapes and the drawing of heads from the flat, can breed intelligence, or develop the thought that culminates in artistic feeling. We must begin by studying nature, or the object itself, for it is as vain to teach the theory of a beauty, which cannot be perceived or felt, as it is to teach the grammatical rules of a language which cannot be understood.

Sixth, the development of the artistic side in drawing must take precedence of the scientific, on the ground that the intuitional and æsthetic faculties are strongest in childhood, and if not given development then, rarely show themselves later. Leonardo Da Vinci only late in life became acquainted with the science of drawing, after having practiced it long years according to the teachings of intuitional thought. So, also, with the Greeks, they were ignorant of the science of perspective, but the art of that period has never been rivaled. Hand work is of value only as it is artistic. The instrument and machine can be made to supply much that the hand cannot furnish, but this they cannot do,—they cannot supply the artistic element, either in the life or the work of a people. Refinement of perception and delicacy of touch are the result only of insight into and contact with the beautiful. The art faculty in every child must be given an opportunity to show itself. Says Emerson, "Beauty must come back to the useful arts, and the distinction between the fine and the useful be forgotten." But a yet stronger plea for the development of the artistic and æsthetic side of drawing with children is the fact of the great divorce which now exists between the occupations and amusements of the people. It is only by the wedding of genius to labor, only by the education of the inward eye of the toiler, so that he shall perceive the beautiful in what he does, that we can hope to transform his drudgery for him, or add the element of rational enjoyment to his existence. The good time coming is that in which the workman shall be friends with his work, and shall take pleasure in what he does; when all this overflowing energy, which now delights itself in the piling up of gold and silver, shall be led to see that man cannot live by bread alone, that "the most useful man in the most useful world, so long as only commodity was served, would remain unsatisfied." When preachers and teachers shall have the eyes of their understanding so adjusted as to find "antique sculpture as ethical as Marcus Aurelius, and the beauty ever in proportion to the depth of thought."

Excellent as our education is, it still needs a larger human side; the intellectual development of the people is running away with them; everybody knows so much more than he can put in practice. To restore equilibrium, we need a development of intuitional thought and feeling. The spirit of the kindergarten points this way, so does all true art instruction, whether in the time or space arts, because its tendency is to develop the silent, creative thought within, and by a series of efforts at realization on the constructive side, lead to the perception and growth of higher ideals. To think logically is not the same as to think poetically; to draw artistically is not the same as to draw scientifically; here feeling must take the precedence of knowing; to equally recognize and cultivate both sides in a human being is the duty of an all-round system of public education.

There are many beauties but the same spirit; to wake the intelligence to the perceiving of one, is an open sesame to the enjoyment of the others. The beauty of nature, of face, of form, of sound, of color, of fitness, and usefulness of action and repose agree in the same essentials. To understand what simplicity, rhythm, harmony, or force means in one, is to enter into the enjoyment of it consciously or unconsciously in all the others. "The light that never was on land or sea" runs through the whole, binding them into a divine unity. Appreciation of and ability to create the beautiful may not be essential to man's longevity, but who dare say they are not to his immortality.

Seventh, in all true art instruction, reproduction in the concrete should accompany line work. The plastic arts have ever been the product of a necessity—as deep as the world. Meaningless lines may exist on paper, they cannot in the object. In the study of ornament most of all is this essential. To get rid of superfluous lines and unnecessary parts, the pupil should model in clay or cut in paper. One such effort at realization is worth a dozen oral criticisms. It lifts the mind from paying attention to a detail, to considering the object as a whole, and any weakness or excess of material is easily detected. Susceptibility by touch and feeling assists the judgment; this actual handling of material is something not to be compensated for by years of line work, and fits directly into the study of applied design. This is also the best way to begin the study of the human face. By modelling each feature separately and finally a mask, an understanding of planes, of proportion of parts, and of truth of outline is acquired, such as mere line work cannot give.

In conclusion, your committee desires to say that they with gladness recognize the fact that American art instruction cannot be a copy or repetition of the work of any other age or country. Learning all we can from the experience of others, the very character of our institutions necessitates that we employ our own methods of reaching results; and as with us more than any other people, the child is lord of the play-ground it remains that such ways and means of imparting art instruction be followed which shall largest educate his general intelligence, and minister to the development of creative thought from within. The citizen first, the specialist second, must be the motto in this as in all other departments of our education.

Respectfully submitted,

JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE.

KINDERGARTEN EXHIBITS.

I. Mrs. Eudora Hailmann's Training School for Kindergartners, La Porte, Ind., presenting complete sets of students' work in folding, cutting and pasting, parquetry, stick-laying, ring-laying, interlacing, weaving, embroidery, drawing, cardboard work, freehand weaving, and sand-table work.

II. Free Kindergarten Association, Chicago, Ill., Miss Eva B. Whitmore, superintendent. (a) Specimens of work done by students with the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and other gifts, also in weaving, cutting and pasting, clay, embroidery, and folding. (b) Specimens of work done by the children in fourteen of the kindergartens of the association, involving all the various gifts and occupations, and thoughtfully grouped with reference to central ideas.

III. Frœbel Association, of Chicago, Ill., Mrs. A. H. Putnam, superintendent. A model kindergarten in operation with adults.

IV. Church Mission Kindergarten, Mrs. A. B. Scott, Chicago, Ill. Samples of work done by the children in weaving, embroidery, folding, and other occupations.

V. Chicago Kindergarten Club, Miss Betty Harrison, president. An exhibit showing the possibilities of various gifts and occupations, prepared by members of the club.

VI. Milton Bradley, Springfield, Mass. (a) An exhibit showing the possibilities of the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh (tablets) gifts, prepared by Mrs. Eudora Hailmann, La Porte, Ind. (b) An exhibit showing the meaning and value of dots, sticks, and rings in the kindergarten, prepared by Miss Bessie T. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind. (c) An exhibit of kindergarten souvenirs, prepared by Miss Helen Clark, Detroit, Mich. (d) An exhibit of sand-modelling, prepared by Miss Betty Harrison, Chicago, Ill.

The public school exhibit of La Porte, Indiana, consisted of two departments.

1. *Typical Work.* In each grade, at the beginning of the school year, three pupils had been selected and the work of these in certain subjects had been collected at certain intervals of time (a week or more). From this work a selection was exhibited as follows: (a) From the first and second grades, work in drawing, cutting, and pasting, clay work, writing, language, arithmetic. (b) From the third and fourth grades, work in drawing, writing, language, arithmetic. (c) From the fifth and sixth grades, work in language, geometry, geography, history, natural history, and arithmetic. (d) From the seventh and eighth grades, work as in c. (e) From the high school work in English language and literature, history, algebra, geometry, and chemistry, the latter chiefly specimens of chemicals prepared by the pupils, with descriptions of processes.

2. *Exhibit of Methods.* (a) The use of the folding sheet. Specimens of work done in the first two grades. Among these, a series of specimens of group-work. (b) The use of the cutting and pasting sheet. Specimens of patterns from the first four grades. The forms were based on the square, circle, and equilateral triangle. To this exhibit were added a number of specimens of parquetry, which in spite of the superior workmanship clearly revealed the greater value of "cutting and pasting" as a means for training the child's form-sense. (c) The use of sticks, more particularly in group-work done by children of the first and second grades. (d) The use of colored dots, more particularly in group-work done by the first grade. (e) The use of Mrs. Hailmann's beads, in a series of number lessons within the limits of 1 to 10, done by the first grade. (f) Collections of objects, linen goods, cotton goods, woolen goods, silks, leather, woods, nuts, spices, etc., neatly mounted on cards and labeled from first, second, and third grades. (g) Cardboard work, from the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades, geometric solids with full descriptions of the forms. (h) The use of clay in modelling, drawing, and coloring, a full line of work based on the cube, cylinder, ball, square, circle, and equilateral triangle, and on the observation of natural objects, from the four primary grades. (i) The "Children's Method" in drawing, connected series of work from the eight primary and grammar grades, in conceptional (and object) drawing, experimental (and inventive) drawing, and dictation drawing. (j) The "Children's Method" in coloring, connected series of work from the primary and grammar grades, in dictation, experimental, and object work. (k) The "Children's Reading Tablets," showing the manner of using the children's work, in the sixth month of the first grade for obtaining a "First Reader." (l) Connected series of written work from all grades in the various subjects of study.

Respectfully submitted,

W. N. HAILMANN.

REPORT ON EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL APPLIANCES, LITERATURE, ETC.

To GEORGE P. BROWN, *Chairman.*

SCHOOL APPLIANCES.

The folding writing-tablet, for application to recitation seats when used in lecture-room, for taking notes. The board tablet is so hinged that it can be turned on edge, giving easy access to seat; and whole seat, with arms and tablets, can be turned up for setting away, so as to take up no more room than if tablet were not attached. A. H. Andrews & Co., manufacturers, Chicago.

Triumph study-desk when folded requires but ten inches of space; can be instantly transformed into a writing-desk; permanently noiseless by principle of construction; adjustible foot-rest; large book depository; lock on every desk.

Slated globes, for study of spherical geometry, trigonometry, and navigation, from $10 to $40.

Andrews's geared tellurian, same manufacturers; designed to illustrate all phenomena resulting from the relations of sun, earth, and moon; makes its claims good.

An improved orrery, showing proportionate size of planets, their satellites, and relative distances.

A numeral frame, same manufacturers, standing high enough for observation by entire class; useful in early number lessons, and also in illustrating squares and roots of numbers.

Self-winding clock, American Manufacturing & Supply Company, Nos. 10 and 12 Dey street, New York. Entirely automatic; self-winding at regular intervals, by electricity, for one year, without attention to battery; expense of renewal not then exceeding twenty-five cents.

Gifford's air-tight ink-well, W. A. Choate & Co., Albany, New York. Cover fitted with cork, and swings either way; closes tight; glass protected from books below by an iron case.

Slat window shades, Union School Furniture Company, Battle Creek, Michigan; 180 Wabash Avenue, Chicago. Durable and easily managed; furnished with fixtures and directions for putting up; shuts off glare, and admits air; ten and twelve cents per square foot.

The Edison mimeograph for copying, A. B. Dick & Co., 254 Lake street, Chicago. Sensitive paper laid on finely grooved steel plate; writing done with stylus; stencil thus made placed in frame, and ink-roller applied, making copies to three thousand. $12 to $20.

Steiger's kindergarten material, the most complete assortment in United States. Catalogue issued by W. A. Olmsted, 182 Wabash avenue, Chicago.

Splendid sets of solid form medals for use in primaries; also cube root blocks, dissected cones, etc. A. H. Andrews & Co., New York.

Johnston's illustrative charts, W. A. Olmsted, 182 Wabash avenue, Chicago. These charts are 50 x 42 inches in size, mounted on cloth and patent rollers, and varnished. In artistic design and finish, superior to any previously seen. Four charts, giving thirty-six to forty-four illustrations each, in botany. Four illustrative of astronomy. Four devoted to zoology, and anatomy. Four to aid the study of magnetism and electricity. Five for natural history and mineralogy. Four giving illustrations of light and heat. Single charts, with manual, $5; complete sets, with teacher's guide, $18. Also, an admirable set of chemical charts, same size and price.

Same firm, collections of minerals, from twenty-five to 300 specimens in set, from $1 to $600 in price.

Same firm, excellent set of philosophical and chemical apparatus.

A word of special praise is due to White's physiological manikin, James T. White & Co., New York. This beautiful representation of the interior of the "house wonderful" was made from the drawings of Frank H. Hamilton, M. D., from whose pen, also, appears a treatise on the "Essentials of Physiology and Hygiene," to accompany the manikin. The latter is life-size, and its beautifully colored plates are indestructible, and will not tear at the hinges. Besides exhibiting the form, position, color, and relation of the organs of a healthy body, these plates show the effects of alcohol on the stomach and liver. The manikin is accompanied by a series of microscopical plates showing sections of lung, vein, valve, bone, hair, finger-end, skin, wall of stomach, cross-section of muscle, etc. The cranial, spinal, and sympathetic nerve systems, and their connections are also illustrated upon these charts. There exists in twenty-five states a law requiring that physiology be taught in the public schools; and such efficient aids as White's manikin will be heartily welcomed by teachers of this important and hitherto much neglected science.

Perhaps the most complete apparatus for teaching physical science offered for inspection at the exposition was that of the National School Furnishing Company, of 141 and 143 Wabash avenue, Chicago. Their valveless air-pump creates a vacuum twenty to thirty per cent. more nearly absolute than those worked by valves. Their Tœpler Holtz electrical machine excels in construction, in rapidity of action, and in density of current. Their new form of plunge battery seems to combine durability, strength of current, compactness, ease, quickness of connections, and economy of service.

The Norris cyclopædic maps, Western Publishing House, Chicago, William R. Norris, 145 Broadway, New York, furnish some pleasant geographical games for children. One feature of the maps is the location of cities by little holes, to which are fitted blocks, each bearing the name of a city and some of its peculiarities, manufactures, etc. These blocks are taken, one by one, from a promiscuous pile, by the child, and each placed in its appropriate locality.

Yaggy's anatomical charts are so bound that their covers form an easel, by which they can be exhibited in any part of the room with ease of transfer. They consist of very fine cuts, showing the parts of the body, life-size, in natural colors and positions. The circulatory system is admirably represented, as also the successive stages of inflammation in the various tissues under the action of alcoholic stimulants. The four manikins of the body, the head, the ear, and the eye, place the human mechanism before the student in almost as realistic a form as the dissecting room could furnish. They supply the nearest approach to object lessons in physiology that is possible in the ordinary school.

One could have spent the day—yes, and many days—in the booth of H. V. Richards & Co., 85 Thirty-fifth street, Chicago, examining their varied exhibit of electrical and magnetic apparatus. From their full high-school set to their kindergarten set, whether imported or of domestic manufacture, all apparatus bore the stamp of latest progress. To step into their dark room and see the beautiful effects in electricity was worth staying for, despite the intense heat of the day and place. Their spectrum analysis tubes, Galvanic and Faradic battery, lightning plate, aurora tube, Tyndal's water-hammer, and a somewhat corresponding French instrument, called *le marteau d'eau chantant*, were among the most interesting features of the exhibit.

W. A. Olmsted, 182 Wabash avenue, Chicago, offers an excellent thing in his new veneer map case, which is easily transferable from wall to wall, and forms a perfect protection from dust when the map, on its patent roller, is rolled up within it. His talc dustless crayons also deserve a trial.

SCHOOL HEATING AND VENTILATING.

Fuller & Warren, 56 Lake street, Chicago, exhibited a furnace for which they claim the following merits: Easy manipulation of grate and passage of dust up into fire; self-cleaning and absolutely gas-tight; an arrangement of flues that greatly economizes combustion. Also, a cold air box, by the easy regulation of which air may be admitted to the furnace from either the interior of the building, or from the outside world, at will. The advantage of this is that when the rooms are not occupied, and the need of ventilation does not exist, the hot-air chamber is fed by the warm air from within the building, which travels in a circuit through rooms and furnace all night, thus preventing loss of heat and economizing fuel.

The Hess "pure air" furnace, George Hess & Co., Chicago, claims a saving of heat by burning the gas and black smoke, and by providing escape to chimney from the base of the combustion chamber. It contains from twenty-four to eighty-four air tubes, placed diagonally across the furnace above the fire, thus presenting an unusually large heating surface. These tubes run criss-cross, and are fed from both sides.

The same manufacturers offer a circulating register for "mixing up" the hot and cold air in a room. The hot air from the furnace rises through a chamber that is open at top and bottom, making an upward draft by which the air from the floor is drawn in and mixed with the heated current. Another praiseworthy device from the same source, is a very simple plan for assisting ventilation. It simply provides a warm upward current of air into chimney, or ventilating flue, by the use of a lighted gas jet or lamp. This firm is also very proud of its deodarized dry closet system, for schools, hospitals, etc.

CLASS-ROOM LITERATURE.

Cowperthwait & Co., Philadelphia, offer, among other valuable additions to this field of literature, Maglott's "Manual of Geography," giving special attention to physical features, explaining international date line, containing minute discussion of political geography and civil government, even dealing with county officers and their salaries, location of mints, assay offices, etc., following descriptive with historical geography. 450 pages, bound in cloth. "Great Lives," a course of history in biographies, by J. I. Mombert, D. D. First series, cloth, $1. "How to See: or, First Steps in Expression of Thought," W. B. Powell, A. M., with nearly one hundred good engravings.

The Interstate Publishing Company publishes Bachelor's "Bouquet of Song" (tonic sol-fa); Crocker's "Color and Form Cards;" Bainbridge's "School-room Games and Exercises;" and Grube's "Method" (Soldan, translator). Also, Parker's "Pictures for Language Lessons," in two series, on stiff paper, 6 x 8 inches. These pictures are clear and beautiful wood-cuts, and full, throughout, of the most lively suggestion for prattlers and young wielders of the pen.

Parker's arithmetical charts are made by the Union School Furniture Company, 180 Wabash avenue, Chicago. These charts, prepared by F. W. Parker, are as follows:

1. Means of testing a child's knowledge of numbers when he first enters school. 2, 3. What is in a number? 4. Equal parts of numbers. 5. Numbers, and their names. 6, 7, 8, 9. Objects, figures, and signs. 10, 11. Equal numbers. 12, 13. 14. Review of ten. 15, 16, 17. Numbers eleven, twelve, thirteen; fourteen, and fifteen. 18, 19. Review. 20, 21. Numbers sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, and twenty. 22, 23, 24. Equal numbers, and equal parts of numbers. 25, 26. Review of twenty. 27, 28. Reminders. Rapid addition. 29. Tens, with objects. 30. Tens to one hundred. Use of figures. 31, 32, 33, 34. Addition and subtraction. 35, 36, 37. One number at a time, from twenty-one to one hundred, inclusive. 38. Addition to fifty. 39, 40, 41, 42, 43. One number at a time, from fifty to one hundred, inclusive. 44, 45, 46, 47. Slate work. 48. Addition to one hundred. 49. Tables of weights and measures to one hundred. 50. Examples.

Covers. 1. Title and contents; 2. Weights and measures; 3. Metric weights and measures; 4. Multiplication table to 10 × 10.

Vaile's primary word-case, E. O. Vaile, Oak Park, Illinois. A supply of wood-cards, figure-cards, and punctuation cards, in a strong box, 9 x 11 inches, divided into compartments for classification of words by initial letters. Cards are printed on both sides, giving word with both capital and small initial. Type large. One case, $1. Over 500 words from various first readers.

Among the books found at the stand of D. Appleton & Co., New York, Boston, Chicago, and San Francisco, were the following, of especial value in education: Rosenkranz' "Philosophy of Education;" Youman's "Descriptive Botany;" Buckley's "Fairyland of Science;" Shaw's "Selections for Written Reproduction."

E. L. Kellogg & Co., 25 Clinton place, New York, and 151 Wabash avenue, Chicago, publish Allen's "Mind Studies for Young Teachers;" Seeley's "Version of Grube;" Patridge's "Quincy Methods" (illustrated); Parker's "Talks on Teaching;" Tate's "Philosophy of Education;" Payne's "Lectures on the Science and Art of Teaching;" Fitch's "Lectures on Teaching;" Kellogg's "School Management;" Johnson's "Education by Doing;" and other valuable works. The "Mind Studies," the "Quincy Methods," and the "Talks on Teaching," are three books well calculated to set forth the "New Education," about which everybody is inquiring. "Quincy Methods" is the best of all books to begin with. It is a report of actual lessons, given as nearly in accordance with Colonel Parker's philosophy as is possible under the interpretation of his most excellent teachers.

Fowler & Wells, phrenological publishers, New York, among other valuable works, offer "The Man Wonderful, in the House Beautiful," a school physiology in the form of a most charming allegory, and "For Girls," a special physiology.

A. Flanagan, 163 Randolph street, Chicago, publishes Trainer's "United States History," in which a series of "object lessons in history" is presented by means of brace outlines for the blackboard; McCormick's "Practical Work in Geography," teaching—1st, the contour of a country: 2d, its relief, or surface; 3d, its political geography; improved historical cards, 200 in a box, giving 1000 facts in their connections, eighty cents; improved geographical cards, on similar plan, same price.

With regret the most indefatigable visitor at the great exposition saw its doors close for the last time, on Friday evening, rich in the possession of its teachings, as gathered in the brief survey of four days, but realizing that as much more time might have been profitably spent among its silent teachers. It was the opportunity of some lives, the central point of meeting, chosen for this year, making it possible for many to attend who may not be able ever again to observe at a school so wide in its resources.

Respectfully submitted,

JEROME ALLEN.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS,

FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1ST, 1888.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS.

FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1st, 1888.

ALABAMA.

Bond, Carrie E., Birmingham.
Brown, S. C., Birmingham.
Calvin, Louise, Birmingham.
Chapman, Alta, Livingston.
Dall, J. M., Troy.
Dickson, Julia F., Birmingham.
Gibson, C. B., Jacksonville.
Jones, Lulu, Florence.
Jones, Mary, Florence.
Knox, K. G., Birmingham.
Mitchell, L. J., Florence.
Palmer, Solomon, Montgomery.
Peterson, Julia, Troy.
Tutwiler, J. S., Livingston.
Weiler, A. M., Decatur.
Wilson, M. V. C., Mobile.

ARKANSAS.

Alexander, J. O. W., Little Rock.
Alexander, Mrs. E., Little Rock
Bahr, H., Little Rock.
Barnes, C. M., Ft. Smith.
Beauchamp, S. J., Little Rock.
Book, G., Little Rock.
Brewster, Edgar, Pine Bluff.
Brooks, Ida Joe, Little Rock.
Brooks, Mary, Little Rock.
Brooks, W. B., Little Rock.
Brown, A. G., Little Rock.
Burkholder, Zillah M., Arkansas City.
Busham J. P., Little Rock.
Carr, Jno., Pine Bluff.
Clark, C. W., Little Rock.
Clark, Mrs. C. W., Little Rock.
Clark, Isaac A., Berryville.
Cuddihy, Katie, Little Rock.
Cunningham, C. S., Ft. Smith.
Cunningham, Kate, Little Rock.
Dana, M. E., Little Rock.
Ditter, F., Little Rock.
Downing, W. L., Little Rock.
Dwyer, Margaret, Ft. Smith.
Edmiston, H. B., Fort Smith.
Edmiston, W. L., Fort Smith.
Farrell, R. E., Little Rock.
Galligan, Rose, Little Rock.
Gates, N. P., Fort Smith.
Glotfelter, J. H., Little Rock.
Glotfelter, May, Little Rock.
Hoover, Mrs. Minter, Little Rock.
Howell, E. C., Pine Bluff.
Hyde, F., Little Rock.
Jordan, Mrs. J., Pine Bluff.
Lamdon, M., Little Rock.
Ledwidge, Annie, Little Rock.
Lockhart, May, Little Rock.
Mandlebaum, J. J., Little Rock.
Mandlebaum, Mrs., Little Rock.
Matthews, Mattie M., Hazen.
McBride, Ruth, Pine Bluff.
Moore, Emma A., Little Rock.
Morrison, Mrs. B., Little Rock.
Morrison, W. B., Little Rock.
Murphy, Maggie, Little Rock.
Oberholtz, A., Little Rock.
Reaves, W. S., Little Rock.
Reed, A., Little Rock.
Rightsell, J. R., Little Rock.
Shader, Ernestine A., Little Rock.
Sorrels, W. B., Pine Bluff.
Sterling, Mrs. B. B., Little Rock.
Ward, Feb. Jr., Little Rock.
Whitcomb, Abby, Texarcana.
Williams, Arthur, Booneville.
Wrightsell, J. R., Little Rock.

CALIFORNIA.

Arnold, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
Cambell, F. M., Oakland.
Conger, E. L., Pasadena.
Craven, Nettie R., San Francisco.
Deming, J. J., Los Angeles.
Durin, Harriet E., Los Angeles.
Holsinger, F. J., Sacramento.
Hoitt, Ira G.,'Sacramento.
Johnson, R. E., Visalia.
Marvedd, Emma, San Francisco.
Pierce, E. D., Pasadena.
Preaston, J. B., Riverside.
Richey, W. J., Bakersfield.
Stetson, Albert, Los Angeles.
Sullivan, Therese M., San Francisco.
Vail, H. J., Pasadena.
Westbay, Levenie M., Stockton.
Wilson, Mrs. Joe, Aiden.

COLORADO.

Babcock, Mrs. C. H., Denver.
Baker, James H., Denver.
Beggs, Robert H., Denver.
Bennett, Carrie A., Denver.
Bixber, Allie M., Denver.
Bogan, E. J., Denver.
Bogan J. A., Denver.
Bradner, M. F., Greeley.
Bradner, Mrs. M. F., Greeley.
Brewster, Clara S., Canon City.
Coney, Clara, Denver.
Crews, C. W., Leadville.
Davis, E. S., Denver.
Dill, Helen, Denver.
Eddingfield, W. F., Idaho Springs.
Folen, Carrie, Denver.
Field, Lillian A., Denver.
Griggs, Herbert, Denver.
Griggs, Mrs. H., Denver.
Hanus, Paul H., Denver.
Hanus, Mrs. Paul, Denver.
Hoaglan, E. H., Greeley.
Houston, Josephine, Silver Plume.
Hutchinson, P. N., Jerlesburg.
Kellogg, Emily, Denver,
Kempster, S. W., Las Animas.
Lines, W. S., Greeley.
Malhgreen, G. A., Denver.
McClave, Maud M., Platteville.
Owens, E. M., Greeley.
Ozuum, E. E., Colorado Springs.
Parker, C. V., North Denver.
Scott, E. J., Greeley.
Stahl, Frank W., Denver.
Stahl, George A., Denver.
Stokes, C. A., Denver.
Vehder, M. C., Leadville.
Welch, A. L., Denver.
Welch, M., Denver.
Whitehead, M. O., Grand Junction.

CONNECTICUT.

Beardsley, Mrs. J. W., Birmingham.
Blake, Hannah, Norfolk.
Bishop, Carrie E., New Haven.
Bishop, C. F., Meriden.
Bishop, Geo. B., New Haven.
Bishop, Minnie A., New Haven.
Boltwood, C. W., New Haven.
Bostwick, Mrs., New Milford.
Burrs, Susan L., Newtown.
Caldwell, Geo. A., New Britain.
Camp, D. N., New Britain.
Chapin, J. H., Meriden.
Clark, Marianne, Middletown,
Darling, Hortense A., New Haven.
Fenn, Gertrude, Faineville.
Guy, James, Middletown.
Holzer, C. L., Bridgeport.
Holzer, Mrs. Jno., Bridgeport.
Hyde, Ada B., New Haven.
Jackson, C. F. Rockford.
Kennedy A. G., New Haven.
King, E. F., New Haven.
Lamson, W. H., Newport.
Merwin, Rena, New Haven.
Peck, John H., New Britain.
Peck, Mrs. J. H., New Britain.
Pitman, Mark, New Haven.
Reilly, Mary, Bridgeport.
Richards, Kittie M., New Haven.
Ricketts, J. E., New Haven.
Roeth, Henry, Meriden.
Smith, Lizzie J., New Haven.
Sterer, Mrs. C., New Haven.
Titus, Mrs. S. W., New Haven.
Tuttle, E. E., Plantsville.
Wheeler, Francis Q., New Haven.

GEORGIA.

Badger, A. D., Atlanta.
Ferris, Amelia, Atlanta,
Fisk, Alice P., Forest City.
Hopkins, Isaac S., Oxford.
Hurshaw, S. M., Atlanta.
Patton, C. S., Atlanta.
Powell, A. Hugh, Macon.
Smith, E. B., La Grange.
Thigpen, W. R., Savannah.
Waruke, A. F., Macon.

ILLINOIS.

Abell, Eva, Durand.
Abbott, Mary A., Chicago.
Ackerly, S. B., Cherry Valley.
Adams, J. I., Des Plaines.
Adams, Mrs. Mary L., Des Plaines.
Agard, James F., Rockford.
Agnew, H. C., Macon.
Aiken, M. P., Evanston.
Albert, C. J., Elmhurst.
Alden, Charles A., Davis.
Alden, M. M., Durand.
Alden, Mrs M. M., Durand.
Alderman, Dottie, Harvard.
Allaben, Frank, Payson,
Allbee, Lillie, Hinckley.
Allbee, Phœbe, Hinckley.
Allen, H. B., Wheeling.
Allen, L. M., Adair.
Allen, Sara A., Genesee
Allen, Sarah R., N. Cranston.
Allen, Winifred C., Woodstock.
Alleson, B. A., Decatur.
Alling, James C., Chicago.
Allison, A. B., Campbell.
Allyn, Angie M., Bradfordton.
Allyn, Ellen S., Carbondale.
Amsden, H. C., Clinton.
Anderson, Ann C., Carbondale.
Anderson, Edward, Springfield.
Anderson, Elizabeth C., Decatur.
Anderson, Henry, Richland,
Anderson, Ida, Lawrence.
Andrews, Adel, Rockford.
Andrews, Alice L., Humboldt Park.
Andrews, Anna M., Mundy.
Andrews, C. H., Taylorville.
Andrews, Chas. L. Chicago.
Andrews, M., Chicago.
Andrews, Minnie J., Chicago.
Andrews, Susie E., Beardstown,
Anthony, Nellie, Moline.
Armstrong, Mattie, Kirkwood.
Arnold, J. F., Newton.
Ashworth, Ada, Sullivan.
Atkinson, Ella, Quincy.
Atkinson, Emma, Quincy.
Atwater, May, Viola.
Atwood, A. L., Keithsburg.
Atwood, Mrs. A. S., Keithsburg.
Austin, Jennie, Polo.
Austin, W. W., Rockton.
Ayers, G. E., Hillsborough.
Ayton, Mollie, Le Roy.
Axtell, Eudora, Walnut.
Bacon, Katherine L., Champaign.
Bailey, Jennie M., Ottawa.
Bainhart, W. C., Mt. Vernon.
Bainur, O. G., Mattoon.
Baker, Annie M., Kankakee.
Baker, Della, Geneseo.
Baker, Katie F., Champaign.
Baldwin, Birdie, Chicago.
Baldwin, Emma, Lewiston.
Baldwin, R. J., Bloomington.
Bangs, Edward, Fairbury.
Barber, E. Frank, Polo.
Barber, R. O., Chicago.
Barbour, O. F., Rockford.
Barbour, Mrs. O. F., Rockford.
Baringham, Mary, Apple River.
Barker, Esther J. W., Chicago.
Barnard, Alice L., Washington H'g'ts.
Barnabee, Joseph, Crawford.
Barnes, E. A., Chicago.
Barnes, James C., Greenville.
Barnes, Nettie, Rockford.
Barnett, Mrs. George W., Rushville.
Barnett, J. I., Hallsville.
Barnhart, W. C., Peoria.
Barrows H. L., Canton.
Barry, M. Sophie, Galena.
Bartholf, Chas. S., Chicago.
Bartholf, W. J., Chicago.
Bartlett, Louisa H., Alexis.
Barton, J. H., Normal.
Barton, Mrs. J. H., Normal.
Barton, Justin A., Irvington.
Barton, R. L., Peru.
Barton, Mrs. R. L., Peru.
Bary, Charles, Chicago.
Bass, Laura S., Canton.
Bassett, Blanche, Chicago.
Bassett, Carrie, Polo.
Bassett, Kittie, Polo.
Bassler, Lily C., Galesburg.
Bastien, Alice V., Ottawa.
Bastin, Ellen B., Chicago.
Bateman, Kate, Alton.
Bates, Ida B., Pekin.
Bathurst, S. B., Ottawa.
Baumgartner, Elizabeth, Springfield.
Baughman, Loretta M., Taylorsville.
Bayley, Olive M., Carmi.
Bayliss; A., Sterling.
Beach, Jane A., Pullman.
Bean, Lela, Clinton.
Beasley, A. W., Peoria.
Beck, A., Chicago.
Beck, Lizzie F., Chicago.
Becker, Marie A., Chicago.
Becker, Sue, Galesburg.
Belden, Francis S., Chicago.
Belden, Grace, Chicago.
Belden, Harry T., Chicago.
Belden, Kate, Galesburg.
Bell, Charlotte, Chicago.
Bell, Ella M., Milledgeville.
Bellis, W. M., Oregon.
Bender, Lottie, Peoria.
Bender, Melia, Peoria.
Benedict, Helen, Galesburg.
Bennett, Addie E., Yorkville.
Bennett, Alice E., Rockford.
Bennett, C. R., Greeneville.
Bennett, Jennie, Edwardsville.
Bennett, Jennie J., Belvidere.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Benthien, Elizabeth M., Millbrook.
Bentley, Marian, Polo.
Bentrook, Maggie L., Pittsfield.
Bergham, Alice, Galesburg.
Berryhill, Ella, Williamsville.
Beseman, Ella, Peoria.
Beseman, Mattie, Peoria.
Bevins, Homer, Chicago.
Bevis, A., Beardstown.
Bickerdike, Richard, Avondale.
Biggers, Geo., Flag Center.
Billings, Romaine, Rockford.
Birge, Alice, Greenville.
Birney, Laura, Normal.
Birney, Lida, Normal.
Bishop, J. A., Moline.
Bitwill, T. S., Chicago.
Black, Hattie F., Ottawa.
Black, Ida M., Tonica.
Black, Jennie, Rockford.
Black, Lewis J., Chicago.
Black, Lizzie Y., Rockford.
Black, Mary, Blue Island.
Black, S. A., Peoria.
Blackman, O., Chicago.
Blackstone, B., Pennington Pt.
Blair, Mary F., Lincoln.
Blakeslee, Alice E., Woodstock.
Blanchard, C. A., Wheaton.
Blanchard, Lizzie, Waukegan.
Bish, Margaret, Kewanee.
Bliss, Rena E., Chicago.
Blount, A. H., Macomb.
Blount, George, Macomb.
Boettcher, E., Chicago.
Bogardus, L., Springfield.
Bogardus, M. J., Springfield.
Bought, Orville T., Englewood.
Boltwood, H. L., Evanston.
Boner, Lizzie, Panola.
Bonney, F. E., Roberts.
Bonwell, Ida, Macomb.
Boon, May, Chrisman.
Boss, J. H., Canton.
Bostwick, O. P., Galena.
Boswell, Kate, Quincy.
Bowen, Mina G., Rock Island.
Bowlbey, J. M., Litchfield.
Bowles, Jno. T., Dixon.
Bowles, Mrs. John T., Decatur.
Bowman, S. Annette, Normal.
Boy, Emma, Monmooth.
Boyd, Effie, Sandwich.
Boyden, Helen W., Chicago.
Boyer, E. R., Lewistown.
Boyer, Ella, Decatur.
Boynton, Rose S., Ravenswood.
Bradford, J. L., Greenville.
Bradford, Mrs. S., Greenville.
Bradley, C. S., Roscoe.
Bradley, S. A., Howard.
Braham, J. A., Petersburg.
Brants, Mamie, Pekin.
Brennan, G. A., Roseland.
Brennan, Lena, Barry.
Brerenton, Clara, Pekin.
Bridges, Mrs. A. W., Kane.
Bridges, Bertha, Collinsville.
Brien, Mollie C., Peoria.
Briggs, Clark, Monticello.
Briggs, Ella K., Freeport.
Brigham, Antoinette G., Englewood.
Brockway, H., Chicago.
Brode, Howard S., Normal.
Broot, Mary L., Peoria.
Brown, G. H., Clinton.
Brown, Mrs. G. P., Bloomington.
Brown, Hattie, Champaign.
Brown, Jennie, Sterling.
Brown, Laura A., Kirkwood.
Brown, Minnie, Oneida.
Brown, Rose L., Chicago.
Brownlee, Allie, Galva.
Brownlee, E., Galva.
Bryant, M. H., Princeton.
Brydges, W. H., Elgin.
Bryer, Sadie, Lena.
Brunton, Inez, Centralia.
Brussie, Mattie, Peoria.
Buch, Martha, Carbondale.
Bugschweidy, Jno., Fairhaven.
Bullard, S. A., Springfield.
Bullis, Stella, Rochelle.
Burbank, Loretta, Polo.
Burke, A. G., Springfield.
Burke, Nellie, Galva.
Burke, Therese, Galva.
Burks, Jennie, Williamsburg.
Burks, Laura, Williamsburg.
Burns, James, Greenville.
Burrill, T. J., Champaign.
Burrill, Mrs. T. J., Champaign.
Burroughs, Eva W., Quincy.
Burt, F. H., Galva.
Burt, Wm. W., Springfield.
Burtch, P. F., Morrison.
Burts, Hattie A., Hyde Park.
Bush, E. J., Sterling.
Bush, Libbie E., Sterling.
Buss, Helen J., Wilmington.
Buss, Julia H., Yorkville.
Butler, A. C., Beardstorm.
Butler, Mrs. H. E., Jacksonville.
Butler, Helen A., Chicago.
Byne, Sarah, Englewood.
Bywater, F. E., Quincy.
Cadwell, Alice, Utica.
Cadwell, Della, Monmouth.
Calkins, F. L., Oneida.
Callaway, Fannie, Pullman.
Campbell, Belle, Byron.
Campbell, E. A., Harvard.
Campbell, J. Q., Decatur.
Campbell, J. S., Medora.
Campbell, Lizzie N., Galena.
Campbell, May G., Fountaindale.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Campbell, S. May, Putnam.
Campion, Ida M., Diversey.
Cannon, J. S., Monmouth.
Cauffman, Ella, Princeton.
Carey, Mrs. Belle, Rochelle.
Carey, Phœbe J., Joliet.
Carl, Alice, Freeport.
Carlson, Erland, Rock Island.
Carlson, Teresa, Sugar Grove.
Carmichael, A. K., Fairbury.
Carnaham, E. L., Lincoln.
Carnaham, L. M., Aledo.
Carpenter, E. A. Harrison.
Carpenter, Nellie M., Englewood.
Carter, Grace, Clinton.
Cartney, Kate M., Havelock.
Case, Sadie, Paw Paw.
Casebeer, J. F., Geneseo.
Cason, Lou, Rushville.
Cassidy, Rose, Rockford.
Caughery, Ella, Coal Valley.
Chadres, Minnie, Vermont.
Chamberlain, Mary L., Maywood.
Chamberlain, Patrick, Chicago.
Chamberlin, W. H., Pontiac.
Chamberlin, Mrs. W. H., Pontiac.
Chambers, M. R., Galena.
Chandler, Alice, Galena.
Chandler, Fannie, Galena.
Chapman, Bird, Stonington.
Charlton, Lydia, Centralia.
Chartres, James B., Dixon.
Chase, Anna C., Riverside.
Chase, C. A., New Milford.
Chase, Frank F. H., Rockford.
Chase, George A., Cherry Valley.
Chase, Sophia M., Riverside.
Cheasbro, Emma, Harvard.
Christensen, Effie, Chicago.
Clark, Ella F., Peoria.
Clark, Hattie, Carmi.
Clark, Kate A., Monroe Centre.
Clark, Louella, Centralia.
Clarkson, E. P., Summit.
Clary, Cora C. G., Maplewood.
Cleveland, Lillian, Mokena.
Clifford, Agnes, Chicago.
Clikeman, V. A., Rockford.
Cline, J. S., Saybrook.
Close, Elizabeth, Chicago.
Close, Helen, Hagewisch
Clough, Serenia E., Arlington.
Coe, Curtis P., Heyworth.
Coe, H. F., Huntsville.
Cochran, Carrie, Monmouth.
Cochrane, C. B., Macomb.
Coffey, M. E., Wyoming.
Colburn, Rosalia, Secoe.
Colburn, Minnie, Kensington.
Cole, Arthur, Chicago.
Cole, John A., Chicago.
Cole, Moll, Chicago.
Coleson, A. M., Chicago.
Collier, Laura, Rochelle.
Colton, B. P., Ottawa.
Compton, Mrs. Helen D., Chicago.
Cone, Mrs. J., Chicago.
Connell, R. D., Delavan.
Cook, A. F., Rock Island.
Cook, Ida M., Chicago.
Cook, Frank, Geneseo.
Cook, Jessie L., Carlyle.
Cook, John W., Normal.
Cook, Nora, Springfield.
Cook, Rebecca, Springfield.
Cooke, M. A., Rock Island.
Coombs, Bertha M., Normal.
Coon, Emma N., Waukegan.
Coonradt, J. H., Decatur.
Cooper, Ella J., Chicago.
Copp, L. M., Rock Island.
Corbin, Wm W., Quincy.
Cornelison, B. F., Washington.
Corrington, Minnie, Loda.
Corson, Mary, Normal.
Corson, S. G., Normal.
Corwin, Eunice, Lincoln.
Coy, E. Annie, Rockford.
Coy, Emma, Rockford.
Cox, Henry C., Chicago.
Cox, Maria J., Prairie Centre.
Crabb, Ella, Galva.
Crandell, C. H., Hinsdale.
Cravens, Annie E., Carthage.
Cravens, L. P., Carthage.
Crawford, Lizzie, Carthage.
Crawley, Hester, Peoria.
Crisler, Gertrude A., Chicago.
Cropsey, L. C., Chicago.
Crotty, Jennie, Geneva.
Crouch, Ida E., Rozetta
Crowe, Julia A., Chicago.
Cummer, Lillie, Warren.
Cullen, Etta, Sherman
Cullen, G. R. E., Springfield.
Cullen, James, Chicago.
Cunningham, Clara, Champaign.
Cunningham, E., Rockford.
Cunningham, R. R., Champaign.
Cureton, Delia E., Chicago.
Curran, Ella, Shirland.
Curtis, Louisa S., Chicago.
Curtis, Maggie, Belvidere.
Custs, J. L., De Kalb.
Cusack, Nell, Chicago.
Daily, Flo, Peoria.
Dale, A. B., Edwardsville.
Dale, Mrs. R. E., Edwardsville.
Dalton, A., Salem.
Dambrough, Annie, Normal.
Dambrough, William, Normal.
Davidson, H. P., Morgan Park.
Davis, Cassie, Rockford.
Davis, Frances D., Evanston.
Day, Alice, Pecatonica.
Day, T., Chicago.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Dean, Sarah E , Macon.
Decker, Kittie A., Rockford.
DeGarmo, Chas., Normal.
DeGraff, Lou, Cherry Valley.
DeLand, Mamie. Washington Heights.
Delano, E. C., Chicago.
Demeen, Sadie A., Lebanon.
Dewey, Ella A., Chicago.
Dickson, Jas. M., Shelbyville.
Diekman, Andrew S., Dalton.
Dietz, Minnie. Irving Park.
Dike, C. B.,.Chicago.
Dille, J. B., Dixon.
Diller, J. W., Minonk. .
Diller, Mrs. Lizzie M., Minonk.
Dillman, L. M., Chicago
Dimock, Mrs. E. F., Chicago.
Dixon, Anna, Belvidere.
Dixon, J. F., Blue Island.
Dodd, Belle M., Chicago.
Dodge, Chas. J., Barrington.
Dodge, Medora C., Chicago.
Dodge, Solow, S., Mayfair.
Dodge, W. C., Chicago.
Dolan, Mary, Geneseo.
Doltan, Katherine, Dolton.
Donnelly, Maggie, Woodstock.
Dow, Mrs. J. E., Peoria.
Dowbr, Florence, Beardstown.
Dawbr, Mrs. J. G., Beardstown.
Dowdall, Annie, Springfield.
Dowdell, John A., De Kalb.
Downie, Isabel, Chicago.
Doxsee, Sarah E.; Moline.
Doyle, Rose M., Peoria.
Dudman T. J., Macomb.
Dunaway, Add. L., Carbondale.
Dunlap, Hettie S., Maywood.
Dunn, B., Chicago.
Dunn, L. Q., Quincy.
Dunoon, David, Eavenston.
Dunoon, Mrs. David, Eavenston.
Dresser, Jessie, Lindenwood.
Durfee, Jennie E., Decatur.
Durham, W. H., Belvidere.
Durr, Annie, Sterling.
Eaton, Cora, Peoria.
Eaton, Nellie, Rochelle.
Eaves, Lucille, Peoria.
Ebersole, A., Sterling.
Eakle, S. J., Forreston.
Eckstorm, Jennie K., Chicago.
Eckstorm, Pauline O., Lake View.
Edmonson, Eva, Chicago.
Edwards, Eva S., Evanston.
Edwards, R. J., Galena.
Edwards, Richard, Springfield.
Eicher, Lizzie, Chicago.
Elliott, A. L., Quincy.
Ellis, Mrs. B. F., Peoria.
Ellis, John C., Chicago.
Ellison, W. S., Morrison.
Elsworth, Edith A., Nunda.
Elmendorf, Agnes. Chicago.
Emerson, Dora, Rockford.
Emerson, Thos. W., Chicago.
Emery, Mary W., Peoria.
Engebretson, Clara, Durand.
English, Mary, Decatur.
Ennis, Anastasia, Chicago.
Enoch, Lois, Rockford.
Epler, P. H., Jacksonville.
Eppenberger, S. M., Alton.
Evans, Anna, Knoxville.
Evans, Kate, Edwardsville.
Evans, L. D., Moline.
Evans, Mary J., Knoxville.
Evans, T. L., Decatur.
Everett, Carrie, Princeton.
Eversole, Francis, Bloomington.
Eyman, Clara, Decatur.
Fager, D. B., Carbondale.
Fager, Mrs. F., Carbondale.
Falkenaw, Harry, Chicago.
Falkenstein, M., Mt. Morris.
Fansler, T. L., Alton.
Farley, Rose A., Chicago.
Farnsworth, J. B., Mayfair.
Farson, M. E., Chicago.
Faulkner, Laura, Galesburg.
Fawcett, D. Frank, Buffalo.
Fay, Lulu, Marengo.
Fear, John H., Deleware.
Fee, J. H., Tampico.
Fell, Fannie C., Normal.
Fellows, Flora, Belvidere.
Ferguson, E. C., Lebanon.
Ferguson, Jennie, Centralia.
Ferguson, Kate, Chicago.
Ferson, Earl B., Hyde Park.
Fierney, Francis L., Chicago.
Filson, M. Fannie. Jacksonville.
Finchman, Ella, Towanda.
Findley, W. W., Kirkwood.
Finley, Esther P. C., Carbondale.
Finke, Anna J., Savanna.
Fisk, Cora A., Sterling.
Fisk, H. D., Dwight.
Fiske, Mrs. Libbie E., Chicago.
Fitzgerald, Ella, Rockford.
Fitzgerald, Maggie, Lincoln.
Fitzpatrick. Macie, Springfield.
Fleming, Alice, Monmouth.
Fleming, Marion, Chicago.
Fleming, Mrs. Mary, Monmouth.
Fletcher, Frank L., Beardstown.
Foin, Louisa, Peoria.
Foley, Fred, New Milford.
Foltz, Lizzie A., Chicago.
Foote, Eva A., Urbana.
Foote, Mary, Rockford.
Forbes, H. C., Princetown.
Ford, Chas. H., Chicago.
Forsythe, Millie, Sandwich.
Foster, Henry A., Pontiac.
Foster, Jennie, S. Evanston.

ILLINOIS (*Continued.*)

Fowler, M. H., Neponset.
Fox, Alice E., Garden Prairie.
Fox, Clara D., Garden Prairie.
Fox, Mary, La Grange.
Francis, C. F., Chicago.
Frankhouser, A. J., Mattoon.
Franklin, Lenore, Rockford.
Franklin, Nellie, Tonica.
Frazier, John, Viola.
Freeman, Blanche, Lake View.
Freeman, Emily, Rock Island.
Freeman, J. H., Springfield.
Freeman, John Rockfield.
Freeman, May, Hanover.
Freeman, N. H., Rock Island.
French, C. G., Springfield.
Friebel, Peoria.
Frost, Jennie M., Roscoe.
Fullerton, W. D. Ottawa.
Fulton, A. H., Atlanta.
Fulton, Belle, Decatur.
Funk, Lou, Exeter.
Furcham, Nellie, Towanda.
Furry, Mary C., Sterling.
Galbraith, L. H., Ashmore.
Gale, Minnie E., Rochelle.
Gall, Kittie A., Wrights Grove.
Gallerway, Emily, Marseilles.
Gammon, Bennet H., Praeston.
Ganch, Arma, Champaign.
Ganmell, W. W., Shannon.
Garman, W. H., Champaign.
Garrabraut, Kittie, Normal Park.
Gartman, C. S., Decatur.
Gartman, E. A., Decatur.
Gartman, E. S, Decatur.
Gaston, Florence, Normal.
Gavin, Winnifred, Chicago.
Gear, Emma L. C., Galena.
Geib, Pauline, Chicago.
Gemmill, H. S., Shannon.
George, Lulu, Galesburg.
George, Winnie, Galesburg.
Gettamy, Mary, Galesburg.
Gibbs, Minnie B, Palatine.
Gibson, J. W., Decatur.
Giddings, Rana B., Monmouth.
Gifford, Mary, Evanston.
Gilbert, Mrs. M. E., Chicago.
Gilbert, Newell D., Maywood.
Gill, Lizzie M., Normal.
Gillepsie, E. D., Edwardsville.
Gillepsie, Henry S., Edwardsville.
Gillepsie, Jennie E. Chicago.
Gillepsie, Mary A., Evanston.
Gillham, Clara, Alton.
Gilson, Lizzie, Galena.
Glotfelter, J. H., Normal.
Glotfelter, May M., Normal.
Gochery, Addie, Marengo.
Goggin, Catharine, Chicago.
Goldsmith, Ida, Delavan.
Gondolf, Amelia N., Ottawa.
Good, Mrs. Jessie, Springfield.
Goodall, Blanche, Rockford.
Goodall, Nellie F., Rockford.
Goodheart, Josie, Pekin.
Goodman, Nellie B., Peoria.
Goodrich, Lewis, Pecatonica.
Goodwin, Bertha, Rockford.
Gorman, A. V., Hillsdale.
Gorman, Emma, Galena.
Gorton, Mary, Moline.
Goss, F. L., Chicago.
Goss, Mrs. L., Chicago.
Gough, Julia W., Turner.
Grace, Susan J., Chicago.
Gragg, J. B., Pittsfield.
Graham, Alice M., Clinton.
Grant, Ada, Galva.
Grant, Maggie, Sunny Hill.
Grattel, Lucy, Freeport.
Grattel, Sarah, Freeport.
Graves, Addie M, Neponset.
Graves, E. F., Lena.
Graves, Mary E., Maplewood.
Gray, Mary V., Lexington.
Green, Adelante, Monmouth.
Green, Inez I., Mt. Vernon.
Greenman, A. V., Rochelle.
Grew, H. C., Monmouth.
Grinshaw, Elizabeth C., So. Chicago.
Grossman, John H., Lanark.
Grossman, Nannie, Lanark.
Grootan, R., Monmouth.
Grover, Kittie F., Evanston.
Gubbins, Margaret M., Lake View.
Gunsolus, Hattie, New Milford.
Gunsolus, Maud, New Milford.
Gunther, Clara, Quincy.
Guthrie, Martha, Jacksonville.
Gutknecht, Louise L., Chicago.
Guttery, S. M., Lincoln.
Guyer, C. K., Rock Island.
Haase, Ralph H., Chicago.
Hach, P. A., Chicago.
Hague, Frances, Galesburg.
Haight, R. A., Alton.
Haive, Mary M., Grand Crossing.
Halbrook, May, Glenwood.
Hale, Hattie, Cherry Valley.
Hale, Laura, Elgin.
Haley, Augustus, Willow Springs.
Hall, Anna, Alton.
Hall, Anna R., Chicago
Hall, E. B., Decatur.
Hall, Emogene S., Chicago.
Hall, Hattie G., Champaign.
Hall, May, Bloomington.
Hall, Stella, Byron.
Halleck, H. N., Preston.
Haller, Kittie, Peoria.
Hamilton, Cora, Pontiac.
Hamilton, Sadie, Jacksonville,
Hamilton, Sarah, Prairie City.
Hamilton, Sylvia, Jacksonville.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Hamlon, Nellie F., Peoria.
Hamm, Kittie, Freeport.
Hammond, H. C., Jacksonville.
Hammond, Ida M., Adeline.
Hamon, N. B., Springfield.
Hampton, S. C., Springfield.
Hamts, G. W., Leaf River.
Hamts, Mrs. G. W., Leaf River.
Handy, Alida R., Decatur.
Haney, Fannie, Onarga.
Haney, Theodore H., Onarga.
Hanger, S. L., Adeline.
Hankinson, F. M., Austin.
Hanley, Sylvester S., Salem.
Hanlon, Marcella, Chicago.
Hanna, Adella, Normal.
Hans, Chas. H., Chicago.
Harding, F. F., Sterling.
Hardy, D. L., Rock Island.
Hardy, Grace, S. Chicago.
Harker, Joseph R., Jacksonville.
Harkey, Maggie, Hillsborough.
Harkins, Sabina, Leemont.
Harley, Sarah, Roscoe.
Harold, Annie, Chicago.
Harriman, C. W., Normal.
Harrington, Jessie, Geneses.
Harrowar, Cora, Nora.
Hart, Mrs. R. L., Carmi.
Hart, Lizzie T., Bowmanville.
Hartman, Mary, Normal.
Hartwell, J. L., Washington.
Hartwig, Louise, Chicago.
Harvey, A., Paris.
Hatch, Henry D., Chicago.
Hartfield, W. R., Bary.
Hartz, Gus, Clinton.
Hawkes, Flora, Rosamond.
Hawley, Lillie S., Chicago.
Hay, Mary E., Peoria.
Hayes, Adda B., Bloomington.
Hayes, Alice, Princeton.
Hayes, Ella, Rockford.
Hayes, Mamie, Rockford.
Hays, M. L., Monmouth.
Hays, Lola, Princeton.
Hazle, Laura, Carrollton.
Headley, Mrs. T. D., Abingdon.
Heamor, M. J., Malta.
Heddrick, Anna A., Peoria.
Heidner, F. W., Aurora.
Heimason, M., Lincoln.
Heinecamp, Lulu, Quincy.
Heinemann, A. H., Normal.
Heinemann, Wm., Chicago.
Hellers, Meta, Chicago.
Helme, N. M., Rockford.
Helmle, Wm., Springfield.
Heming, M. M., Aledo.
Hench, Jennie L., Byron.
Henden, A., El Paso.
Henderson, G. M., Rockford.
Henderson, Myra, Virden.
Hendricks, Nellie, Decatur.
Hendricks, Mary P., Greenville.
Henerman, Dora, Chicago.
Henerman, Emma J., Chicago.
Henerman, Minnie, Chicago.
Heninger, John W., Bloomington.
Henman, James, Chicago.
Hennesey, Kittie, Rockton.
Henry, Dale, Galena.
Henry, Sarah R., Galena.
Henry, Mrs. Susan, Galena.
Herrick, Geo. M., Chicago.
Hess, Ella, Washburn.
Hester, Carrie B., Washington.
Heywood, F. S., Chicago.
Hicks, Ella J., Englewood.
Hieronymous, R. E., Normal.
Higby, E. E., Ottawa.
Higgins, Maggie, Pittsfield.
Higley, W. K., Chicago.
Hilgan, Sophia, Belleville.
Hilgard, Ella M., Hyde Park.
Hill, Mrs. E. A., Durand.
Hill, Louisa D., Chicago.
Hill, Thos. E., Springfield.
Hillard, Martha, Rockford.
Hiller, Ray, Springfield.
Hinckley, S. P., Chicago.
Hinkle, Maggie, Peoria.
Hirsch, M. A., Metamore.
Hitch, R. M., Carlinville.
Hixon, Julia C., Bunker Hill.
Hobart, F. E., Hinesborough.
Hobart, Hattie, Roscoe.
Hodgman, Carrie E., Princeton.
Hoff, G. S., Rossville.
Hoffar, John, Forreston.
Holaday, J. S., Tolono.
Holcombe, A. E., Rockfeller.
Holcombe, D. M., Highland Park.
Holden, Kate L., Chicago.
Holland, Annie, Sterling.
Hollinshed, Emma, Belvidere.
Hollinshed, Grace, Belvidere.
Hollister, Antoinette, Hyde Park.
Holloway, M. L., Elgin.
Holiday, G. M., Allerton.
Holmes, Mrs. Evalena, Grand Crossing
Holmes, Jessie, Galesburg.
Holmes, L., Chicago.
Holmes, Sarah E., Chicago.
Holmes, Mrs. McKee, Springfield.
Holt, H. V., Forreston.
Holt, Mrs. H. V., Forreston.
Holt, Robt., Rockford.
Hood, Sadie B., Sparta.
Hooke, Emma, Chicago.
Hopkins, D. G., Marquon.
Hopkins, Ellen, Syracuse.
Hopkins, Minnie M., Astoria.
Horton, Clara O., Galesburg.
Houghton, L. C., Kansas.
Housel, G. R., Rock Island.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Housenworth, Lura, Pontiac.
Houston, O. B., Durand.
Howe, Annie L., Washington Heights.
Howe, Edward G., Washington Hgts.
Howe, J. W., Bethany.
Howe, Lizzie, Bradford.
Howland, George, Chicago.
Hubbard, Jessie, Pontiac.
Hubbell, Jennie, Rockford.
Hubbs, Maggie, Alexander.
Huckins, Millin, Hamilton.
Hudson, Isabel E., Chicago.
Hudson, Olive, Bloomington.
Hulbert, Laura, Buckling.
Huleatte, Margaret, Hyde Park.
Hulett, Lanie, Chicago.
Hull, B. F., Clinton.
Hull, John, Carbondale.
Hume, Ella J., Colchester.
Hunt, Julia, Galesburg.
Hunt, Mary, Galesburg
Hunt, T. F., Champaign.
Hunter, Emma, Bloom.
Hunter, Isabella, Rockford.
Hunter, Mary, Galva.
Hunter, Sarah, Englewood.
Huntington, B. B., Washington Hgts.
Hupp, J. M., Englewood.
Huppenheim, Chicago.
Hush, S. B., Woodstock.
Hutchins, Mrs. J. C., Monmouth.
Hutchinson, Cathrine, Monmouth.
Hyde, J. F., Lincoln.
Hygrem, M. J., Rockford.
Hyvetter, V. D., Springfield.
Ingalls Julia D., Chicago.
Inglis, Samuel M., Carbondale.
Innman, Nellie, Milledgeville.
Irwin, Janet, Chicago.
Ives, H. W., Springfield.
Izenstalk, Farmer City.
Jack, Katie H., Springfield.
Jackson, J. H., Chicago.
Jackson, J. W., Englewood.
Jackson, Mrs. Mary M., Bowmanville.
Jackurtz, J.
Jacobs, Lottie, Elgin.
Jacoby, Lillian, Rockford.
James, Mazie, Galena.
Jarvis, Josephine, Cobden
Jaycox, W. E., Rockford.
Jayne, W. E., Oak Park.
Jemison, John, Quincy.
Jenkins, Camille, Butler.
Jenkins, Fannie, Butler.
Jenkins, Wm., Mendota.
Jenks, E. L., Rockford.
Jenks, Mrs. J. W., Galesburg.
Jennings, Alice, Mattoon.
Jennings, Sophia M., Hyde Park.
Johnson, Ada, Grand Crossing.
Johnson, Ada B., Grand Crossing.
Johnson, Alma, Galesburgh.
Johnson, A., Belvidere.
Johnson, Carrie, Galesburgh.
Johnson, Louis, Springfield.
Johnson, Lucy, Mendota.
Johnson, Mrs. Harriet, Chicago.
Jolley, A. R., Peru.
Jones, C. L., Galesburgh.
Jones, D. P., Chicago.
Jones, Emma Frances, Springfield.
Jones, Fannie, Edinburg.
Jones, F. M., Bement.
Jones, J. Loyd, Chicago.
Jones, Mrs. J. Loyd, Chicago.
Jones, Julia M., Galena.
Jones, Lotta A., Hamilton.
Jones, Lou. D., Edinburg.
Jones, W. O., Chicago.
Joseph, M., Quincy.
Joseph, S. D., Quincy.
Joslyn, Flora, Grand Crossing.
Joy, Adalia C., Mt. Carroll.
Judd, S. Alice, Chicago Lawn.
Judson, R. E., Decatur.
Kamman, C. H., Mascontah.
Kane, Annie M., Wrights Grove.
Kane, Benj., Chicago.
Kane, Loretta, Chicago
Karger, Adolph, Warren.
Kauffman, Waterman.
Keary, Alice, Chicago.
Keeler, Lolo, Shelbyville.
Keeman, Clara H., Quincy.
Keenan, P. H., Chicago.
Kelly, M. R., Morrison.
Kempson, Amanda, Creston.
Kendrick, Mary C., Greenville.
Kennedy, Belle, Carrollton.
Kennedy, Ella, Peoria.
Kennedy, Julia E., Normal.
Kennedy, Mary A., Chicago.
Kenney, Anne, Hyde Park.
Kerman, M. E., Macombe.
Kerr, Edith, Chicago.
Kerr, Jennie, Davis Junction.
Ketterman, Jennie, Nursery.
Kilbourne, Effie, Hyde Park.
Kimball, Mary F., Ravenswood.
King, Mrs. Frances, Chicago.
Kingsley, Frank W., Hermosa.
Kingsley, H. H., Evanston.
Kinney, Jas., Wyoming.
Kipley, Chas., Raymond.
Kirk, Alfred, Chicago.
Kirk, Jas., Eureka.
Kirk, W. R., Sterling.
Kirkpatrick, Annie, Rock Island.
Kirkpatrick, E. W., Monmouth.
Kitendaugh, Mrs. J., Dunning.
Klarner, Anna, Quincy.
Klarner, Julia, Quincy.
Kleine, Augusta, Chicago.
Kletzing, F. B., Millington.
Kletzing, U. B., Glencoe.
Kletzing, Josiah F., Ravenswood.
Klingler, W. M., Manhattan.

ILLINOIS. *(Continued.)*

Klink, Fred, Quincy.
Knadson. Augusta, Springfield.
Knight, Emily D., Yorkville.
Knight, M. G., Normal.
Knight, Mrs. S. H., Chicago.
Knowles, W. W., Chicago.
Kormack, Flora E., L'Ostant.
Kosler, Belle L., Byron.
Kraekowizer, Alice M., Blue Island.
Kreiger, Elise, Chicago.
Kroeber, Louisa, Chicago.
Kuhl, Mary H., Springfield.
Kyle, S. R., Champaign.
Lach, C., Freeport.
Lachens, G. A., Goodhope.
Lagneau, Mrs. Lea R., Ottawa.
LaLand, Mary, Chicago.
Lambert, Vashti A., Palatine.
Lamping, Kate, Peoria.
Lane, A. G., Chicago.
Lang, Jeanette, Bloomington.
Larck, L. A., Mendota.
Large, Susie H., Millersville.
Larrabee, Nora, Hammond.
Larrabee, W. H., Hammond.
Lawler, Ella, Mineral.
Lawler, Kate, Mineral.
Lawrence, J. G., Philo.
Lawrence, Mamie, Belvidere.
Laws, Anna, Exeter.
Leachman, A., Champaign.
Leachman, Oma, Champaign.
Ledterman, M. T., Pekin.
Lemmon, Ella S., Walnut.
Lemon, Laura M., Oledo.
Lennon, Anthony, LaGrange.
Leonard, Martha, Barrington.
Leslie, Geo. L., Sheffield.
Lester, Nettie, Blandinsville.
Lewis, Grace, Creston.
Lewis, Hattie, El Paso.
Lewis, Leslie, Hyde Park.
Lewis, Mrs. Lillie, Chicago.
Lewis, M. E., Warren.
Lewis, Nellie, Creston.
Ligget, Maggie, Gibson City.
Lindahl, Joshua, Rock Island.
Lindemann, C. W. A., Ottawa.
Lindley, Naomi, Pocahontas.
Lines, S. S., Peoria.
Linn, Maggie, Byron.
Linn, Mary G., Byron.
Linn, M. P., Edwardsville.
Linturmen, Jennie, Chicago.
Little, C. H., Freeport.
Little, Luella V., Chicago.
Livingston, Mary B., Chicago.
Lodge, Anna L., Hyde Park.
Lohman, F. H., Roberts.
London, Emma J., Bloomington.
London, Jennette, Bloomington.
Long, A. J., Big Rock.
Long, Florence, Chicago.
Longley, Carrie A., Roodhouse.
Londsdale, Mrs. A. F., Englewood.
Loomis, John H., Chicago.
Loring, Mrs. Stella Dyer, Chicago.
Lormar, F. H., Lawanda.
Lormor, Minnie, Delavan.
Loveridge, L. E., Chicago.
Loyd, Mrs. E. C., Springfield.
Loyd, M. G., Springfield.
Lucas, J. G., Belvidere.
Lukens, Lizzie E., Decatur.
Lukens, Mary A., Decatur.
Lundy, J. K., Taylorville.
Lyford, Augusta A., Rockford.
Lynch, Mrs. C. B., Peoria.
Lynch, K. B., Peoria.
Lynn, A. L., Jacksonville.
Lyons, A. J., Orland.
MacClintock, Eugene F., Blue Island.
McAffee, Hannah, Roscoe.
McAffee, Vesta J., Roscoe.
McAleese, L. A., Peoria.
McBurnie, Sadie, Peoria.
McCall, Ida, Galesburg.
McCarthy, Mary, Chicago.
McCarthney, M. N., Metropolis.
McCaughin, Mary G., Waseka.
McCauley, Lena, Chicago.
McCauliff, Barbara, Jacksonville.
McCauliff, Lillie, Jacksonville.
McClanaham, Cora, Monmouth.
McClanathan, Mrs. G. M., Maplewood.
McClellan, Geo. W., Galena.
McClellan, John, Macomb.
McClelland, B. F., Sullivan.
McClelland, Mrs. B. F., Sullivan.
McCleneham, J., Galva.
McCollum, Emma J., Taylorville.
McCord, Mary O., Wilmette.
McCormick, Gertrude, Princeton.
McCormick, Henry, Normal.
McCormick, Mrs. Henry, Normal.
McCowen, Mary, Englewood.
McCoy, John, Little York.
McCulloch, Mrs. A., Mt. Vernon.
McCullough, N. N., Springfield.
McDaniel, Ida, Carlinville.
McDill, M. E., Monmouth.
McDonald, Maggie, Grand Crossing.
McDonald, Mary Isabel, Chicago.
McDonald, J. W., Archie.
McEwen, Annie, DeKalb.
McFall, T. W., Quincy.
McGinley, Mary H., Chicago.
McGinnis, Sue, Mendoto.
McGlinn, Lillie, Chicago.
McGrath, Mary, Chicago.
McGraw, Nellie E., Turner.
McGregor, May, Chicago.
McGrimsby, Mary, Chicago.
McGuire, N. H., Decatur.
McGurn, Mary, Englewood.
McHenry, Eda, Clinton.
McHenry, Ella, Clinton.
McHenry, Lulu M., Chicago.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

McHery, M. W., Decatur.
McHugh, Josie M., Galena.
McIntire, Nellie L., Neponset.
McIntosh, Julia, Knoxville.
McIntosh, L. D., Chicago.
Mack, Hattie, Sterling.
McKay, F. M., Chicago.
McKay, Harry, Pana.
McKenney, Ruth, Marengo.
McKinney, W. S., Farmington.
McKnight, S. A., Odin.
McKnight, Sally, Odin.
McMillan, J., Carlinville.
McMillan, J. H., Monmouth.
McMillan, Mrs. J. H., Monmouth.
McMillan, M. N., Carlinville.
McNuff, Ida C., Jefferson Park.
McPherson, May G., Rockford.
McVenn, Lizzie, Winslow.
Madden, Sophia C., Glencoe.
Madliner, Fridolin, Chicago.
Maguire, Tommie, Macomb.
Maher, Mary L., Jacksonville.
Maley, Helen, Englewood.
Maley, Mary B., Englewood.
Man, Maggie, Summit.
Manley, Nellie, Lemont.
Mann, Mrs. Abram, Rosville.
Mann, M., Beardstown.
Mannhardt, Emil, Chicago.
March, Mrs., Augusta.
Marden, Walter, St. Anne.
Marshall, E. C., Elinwood.
Marshall, George H., Tuscola.
Marshall, S. Lizzie, Monmouth.
Marten, John, Decatur.
Marten, Mrs. J. F., Decatur.
Martin, D. A., Pullman.
Martin, Mrs. E. A., Chicago.
Martin, J. Dell, Maplewood.
Martin, K. L., Morrison.
Martin, Katie, Peoria.
Martin, L. M., Geneseo.
Martin, Maggie, Taylorville.
Martin, W. L., Ashley.
Marvin, Edith, Freeport.
Marviner, Belle D., Ottawa.
Masquelet, Joseph, Lake.
Mather, C. J. E., Warrenville.
Mathews, M. E., Delaware.
Mathews, Mrs. Julia, Urbana.
Mathews, Mary, S. Chicago.
Maxwell, Anna, Champaign.
Maxwell, G. M., Byron.
Mead, Ruth T., Rockford.
Meads, Fannie L., Chicago.
Meany, Emma, Englewood.
Meck, Jennie M., Orleans.
Medill, Margaret, Moline,
Mendelson, M. S., Chicago.
Mercer, J. A., Peoria.
Mercer, Mrs. J. A., Peoria.
Merrill, L. A., Maywood.
Merrill, H. L., Palastine.
Merrill, Lydia, Astoria.
Merrill, Sanford, E., Glenwood.
Merhlow, Ida V., Chicago.
Messick, L., Nora.
Metcalf, J. H., Decatur.
Metcalf, Thomas, Normal.
Mettler, L., Bloomington.
Meyer, Mrs. H., East St. Louis.
Meyer, T., East St. Louis.
Middlekaugh, H., Rockford.
Middlekaugh, Helen, Rockford.
Middlekaugh, M., Rockford.
Middleton, L. J., Springfield.
Miles, Ben, Chicago.
Miller, A. B., Lincoln
Miller, Chauncey, Englewood.
Miller, M. F., Morriston.
Miller, Madge D., Polo.
Miller, Mamie, Keithsburg.
Miller, Nellie, Macomb.
Miller, Ora, Macomb.
Milligan, H. W., Jacksonville.
Mills, Cora E., Chicago.
Milner, Mrs. S. A., Grand Crossing.
Minard, C. W., Wilmington.
Miner, Carrie E., Englewood.
Miner, G. F., Edwardsville.
Minro, Louise, Peoria.
Mirhold, Mary, Hillsboro.
Mitchell, Clara I., Englewood.
Mitchell, Cora, Mason City.
Mitchell, Dana A., Dalton.
Monroe, H. A., Chicago.
Monroe, M., Chicago.
Montgomery, Hattie, Atlanta.
Montgomery, Maggie, Rockford.
Montgomery, Mrs. S., Monmouth.
Montrose, H. W., Schapville.
Montrose, Sarah, Schapville.
Mooney, Mrs. Will, Springfield.
Moore, George O., Newman.
Moore, Hattie A., Moline.
Moore, Mary E., Moline.
More, Ella, Petersburg.
Morgan, F. S., Shirland.
Morgan, R. T., Wheaton.
Morrill, D. L., Chicago.
Morris, Andusta, Chicago.
Morris, Margaret, Braidwood.
Morris, Willis M., Princeton.
Morrison, Josie, Rockton.
Morrison, Nellie, Rockton.
Morrison, W. J., Peotone.
Morse, Edward L., S. Chicago.
Morse, Hattie, E., Normal.
Moth, Nellie, Winnetka.
Murphy, Mrs. A. E., Decatur.
Murphy, Fannie, Dixon.
Murphy, R., Taylorville.
Murphy, Sadie, Sterling.
Murray, Mary E., Chicago.
Mutimer, Fannie, Rockford.
Mutimer, Hattie E., Rockford.
Mutimer, Nellie, Rockford.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Myers, Kate, Springfield.
Myers, Laura B., Oak Park.
Myers, Mattie A., Chicago.
Myrick, Libbie, Morgan Park.
Naramore, Eunice, Springfield.
Naramore, M. O., Lena.
Neel, Ella A., Mattoon.
Neff, Justus F., Turner.
Neiberger, E. A., Armington.
Nevins, W. H., Joliet.
Newell, Lottie I., Galesburg.
Newman, Mrs. A. A., Delavan.
Newman, Annie S., Delavan.
Newsham, Bessie, Edwardsville.
Newton, Paul, Hallock.
Nichols, Nellie, Garden Prarie.
Nichols, T. W., S. Evanston.
Nightingale, A. F., Lake View.
North, Mrs. N., Chicago.
Northam, Etta D., Nora.
Norton, Minerva, Marengo.
Nott, Leonora N., Wilmington.
Nourse, E. H., Englewood.
Nowland, Edna, Peoria.
Nutting, Lillie H., Chicago.
Nygren, Amanda, Rockford.
Oakey, Maria, Arlington.
Obell, Cora, Peoria.
O'Brien, Isabel N., Highland Park.
O'Connor, Julia, Shabbona.
O'Donnell, B. H., Bloomington.
O'Kell, G. B., Alton.
Olcott, J. M., Chicago.
Oldfather, George W., Galesburg.
Olds, Myra, Englewood.
Oldt, F. F., Lanark.
Oliver, Maggie, Toulon.
Oliver, Mary E., Harrison.
Olson, Amanda, Milan.
Ong, J. M., Lacon.
Ong, Mrs. J. M., Lacon.
Onstatt, Emma, Bloomington.
Ormsby, F. B., Normal.
Orr, R. W., Taylorville.
Orton, E. J., Rockford.
Osborn, F. C., Chicago.
Ottofy, Louis, Chicago.
Otwell, Annie E., Carlinville.
Owen, Mary F., Chicago.
Paddock, Harriet, Blue Island.
Palmer, Elmer J., Chicago.
Park, Kate M., Urbana.
Park, Nellie, Malden.
Park, Nellie, Taylorville.
Parkensin, S. G., Monmouth.
Parker, C. M., Taylorville.
Parker, George N., Normal.
Parker, Helen M., Chicago.
Parkinson, Daniel B., Carbondale.
Parks, Lulu, Farmer City.
Parmelee, Anna, Polo.
Parmenter, E. L., Chicago.
Parrington, Wm. A., Irving Park.
Parsons, S. F., Chicago.
Parsons, W. L., Chicago.
Patten, Nellie M., Jacksonville.
Patterson, Ella, Chicago.
Patterson, M. E., Freeport.
Paul, C. R., Springfield.
Paullin, L. E., Ottawa.
Peabody, Selim H., Champaign.
Peacock, M. E., Kankakee.
Peacock, Mrs. P., Kankakee.
Peadro, B. F., Sullivan.
Peck, Jennie, Rockton.
Pelz, H. J., Metamora.
Penny, Ovil, Collinsville.
Pennywith, Lulu, Macomb.
Periam, Alice, Chicago.
Perkins, Mrs. J. B.,
Perkins, Lilly, Sparta.
Perrin, John W., Danville.
Perry, C. L., Rock Island.
Perry, Edward P., Quincy.
Perry, F. D., Shirland.
Perry, Mrs. F. D., Shirland.
Peters, Alverta A., Centralia.
Peters, Mary, Princeville.
Peterson, Eda, Galesburg.
Peterson, L. Kitty, Chicago.
Pettingill, Mrs. Louise C., Chicago.
Pettibone, Ira W., Pettibone.
Pettipiece, G. L., Holdane.
Petty, J. B., Mt. Carroll.
Phelps, Jessie, Princeton.
Phelps, Minnie, Princeton.
Phenix, Lillie, Bradford.
Philbrook, Edwin, Decatur.
Philbrook, Ellen C., Decatur.
Phillips, Angela, Lake View.
Phillips, Mary B., Hyde Park.
Phillips, Mrs. M. W., Jacksonville.
Phillips, W. S., Jacksonville.
Phipps, S. B., Aurora.
Pichard, J. C., Champaign.
Pickering, W. A., Kankakee.
Pierce, Benjamin F., Rockford.
Pierce, Mrs. B. F., Rockford.
Pierce, Franc, Monmouth.
Pierce, Mary E., Chicago.
Pierce, W. W., Polo.
Piersol, E. A., Freeport.
Piersol, J. J., Freeport.
Piersol, May, Freeport.
Pike, J., Jerseyville.
Piper, J., Chicago.
Pitney, F. B., Keithsburg.
Place, Lottie, Durand.
Plank, Bessie J., Champaign.
Plant, George D., Chicago.
Platt, Alexander, Jacksonville.
Platt, Susan J., Jacksonville.
Pleasants, Oma, El Paso.
Plummer, Mary W., Chicago.
Pomeroy, Agnes, Ohio.
Poole, L. M., Polo.
Porter, Alice, Lovington.
Porter, Mary, Lovington.

ILLINOIS. *(Continued.)*

Porter, O. H., Clinton.
Potter, B. S., Bloomington.
Potter, Clark R., Chicago.
Potter, Francis R., Rockford.
Potter, Laura J., S. Chicago.
Powell, May G., Quincy.
Pratt, Z. S., Quincy.
Preast, Walter A. Chicago.
Prentiss, H. P., Quincy.
Pressly, W. P., Monmouth.
Pride, Phœbe, Chicago.
Price, Luther, Monmouth.
Price, Mary, Rockford.
Price, H. S., Monmouth.
Pritchard, Emma, White Hall.
Prouchy, F. E., Chicago.
Punnell, Flora, Normal.
Purdy, Lelia A., Mattoon.
Putman, Alice, Chicago.
Queeny, E. J., Chicago.
Raab, Henry, Belleville.
Ragan, Silas A., Shelbyville.
Ramey, Maria E., Carlinville.
Ramey, Mildred, Carlinville.
Ramey, Priscilla, East St. Louis.
Ramsay, M. A., Carlyle.
Rapp, Kate O., Jacksonville.
Rapp, William, Chicago.
Rassweiler, J. K., Wheaton.
Raster, Herman, Chicago.
Ray, W. H., Hyde Park.
Raymond, Anna G., Pana.
Raymond, Sarah E., Bloomington.
Read, Frank, Jacksonville.
Read, Henry W., Galesburg.
Redfield, Flora E., Marengo.
Reed, Edna L., Normal.
Reedy, Kate A., Chicago.
Regan, L. T., Morris.
Reid, Mary, Peoria.
Reinschreiber, A., Thomas City.
Rennick, Louise D., Grand Crossing.
Renshaw, Cora, Decatur.
Requa, R., Rock Island.
Ress, Minnie, Lincoln.
Reynolds, Fannie, Quincy.
Reynolds, W., Gladstone.
Rice, B. B., Monroe Centre.
Rice, Emily J., Englewood.
Rice, Mary E. S. B., Chicago.
Rice, Maurice P., Lewiston.
Rice, Rebecca S., Chicago.
Richards, T. M. D., Woodstock.
Richards, W. C., Chicago.
Richardson, A. L., Rockford.
Richardson, Ella., Roscoe.
Richardson, George, Warren.
Richardson, Margaret, Roscoe.
Richardson, Rachel, Winslow.
Richmond, Ella M., Lake View.
Rider, M. Evelyn, Nilwood.
Rieder, Frank W., Chicago.
Riess, Gus, Cowden.
Riesz, Lydia, Peoria.
Riley, Charles, Aurora.
Ritscher, Lucy J., Beardstown.
Ritter, S. M., Wheaton.
Robbins, Louisa M., Quincy.
Roberts, Flora E., Quincy.
Roberts, Jennie, Quincy.
Roberts, Nellie Z., Winchester.
Robinson, A. R., Hinsdale.
Robinson, Adelia, Chicago.
Robinson, Cora A., Carbondale.
Robinson, Jessie, Blue Island.
Robinson, Jessie E., Chicago.
Robinson, Kate, Peoria.
Robinson, May E., Chicago.
Robinson, Maud, Blue Island.
Robinson, Nellie H., Chicago.
Rochelle, Louisa E., Ottawa.
Rochelle, Nellie, Ottawa.
Roddy, F. P., Decatur.
Roddy, Mrs. F. P., Decatur.
Rogers, Georgiana, Wilmette.
Rogers, Mary, Peoria.
Rogers, R., Council Hills.
Rolfe, C. W., Urbana.
Ropes, Sadie, Belleville.
Roos, Peter, Champaign.
Roos, Mrs. Champaign.
Rose, O. E., Chicago.
Rosenfield, B., Chicago.
Rosenfield, B. R., Chicago.
Ross, Jennie, Monmouth.
Root, Fred K., Hyde Park.
Roots, B. G., Tamarva.
Rouke, Agnes, New Holland.
Rowland, J. R., Ipava.
Rowland, Mrs. J. R., Ipava.
Royce, Harriet F., Chicago.
Royce, Mary E., Chicago.
Rucker, Mattie B., Clinton.
Rumbold, May B., Carbondale.
Rushton, May, Alden.
Russel, E. L., Chicago.
Russel, J. L., Jacksonville.
Russel, Mary, Jacksonville.
Russell, J. B., Kenanee.
Russell, W. H., Chicago.
Rutherford, Kate, Peoria.
Ryan, Mrs. H., Peoria.
Ryrie, M. F., Alton.
Sabin, A. R., Chicago.
Sage, Fannie E., Dalton.
Salter, Matilda F., Carbondale.
Saltsman, Kate, Bloomington.
Sanborn, Ambrose, Polo.
Sanborn, G. M., Polo.
Sanderson, Christina, Decatur.
Sanford, W. D., Belvidere.
Santz, Clara, Pekin.
Sargent, S. D., Tolano.
Savage, Amelia, Austin.
Scace, Mary, Warren.
Scarborough, A. J., Chicago.
Schall, Emma, Quincy.
Schalabach, T. C. E., Chatsworth.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Scholtz, C. H., Lincoln.
Schoonhover, M., Oregon.
Schroder, L., Park Ridge.
Schryver, Jennie L., Woodstock.
Schureman, W., Wyanet.
Schivartz, S., Chicago.
Schwedler. F. E., Chicago.
Scott, Mrs. A. B., Chicago.
Scott, Clifton, Dixon.
Scott, Jennie E., Delevan.
Scott, M. B., Monticello.
Scott, Mary, Princeton.
Scott, Sarah, Atlanta.
Scudder, C. O., Pekin.
Scudder, Kittie, Galesburg.
Sculley, Florence, Irving Park.
Scullin, J. C., Peoria.
Scullin, Mrs. J. C., Peoria.
Seal, Ascha, Rockford.
Seal, J. C., Rockford.
Seal, O. B., Rockford.
Seal, Warren B., Rockford.
Sedgwick, May, Sandwich.
Seeley, Huldah L., Chicago.
Selby, George, Macomb.
Selden, F. H., Elgin.
Sell, C. E., Springfield.
Sell, Mary J., Springfield.
Sellars, Amanda, Mattoon.
Sellars, Dorie, Mattoon.
Servics, Cly, Warren.
Sessions, Florence A., Woodstock.
Sewall, Grace, Harlemville.
Seymour, Minor L., Normal.
Shaw, Lizzie, Rockford.
Sheeham, Joanna A., Chicago.
Sheldon, Ida M., Chicago.
Sheldon, May L., Wilmette.
Sherman, L. Y., Macomb.
Sherman, W. C., Chicago.
Sherrill, H. J., Chicago.
Shields, Nellie, Monmouth.
Shimmin, K. E., Pecatonica.
Shimmin, L. M., Pecatonica.
Shimmin, Mina, Pecatonica.
Shimway, Lou, Taylorville.
Shirley, S. T., Rock Falls.
Shoemaker, Sophia M., Biggsville.
Shuhan, Pat., E. St. Louis.
Shultz, Marie, Biggsville.
Sikes, O. A., Mason City.
Silke, Lucy S., Chicago.
Silversparre, Winona, Chicago.
Simmons, George D., Chicago.
Simms, Anna B., Decatur.
Simonds, Ossian H., Chicago,
Simonson, Lorena, Peoria.
Simonson, Sarah D., St. Charles.
Simpson, B. F., Taylorsville.
Simpson, W. A., Chicago.
Sinnott, K., Ottawa.
Skinner, Mary C., Normal.
Skinner, J. C., Hudson.
Skuls, R. J., Evansville.
Slade, James P., Greenville.
Sloan, Eliza Z., Peoria.
Smale, Winnifred C., Chicago.
Smedley, Eva A., Belvidere.
Smeeth, Julia E., Chicago.
Smeeth, Helen, Chicago.
Smith, A. J., Springfield.
Smith, Carrie E., Dwight.
Smith, Charles A., Rockford.
Smith, E. E., Chicago.
Smith, Mrs. E. E., Chicago.
Smith, George W., White Hall.
Smith, Gertie, Savannah.
Smith, Mrs. H. M., Mound City.
Smith, Lucy E., Edwardsville.
Smith, L. C., Chicago.
Smith, Mrs. L. M., Rockford.
Smith, Minnie L., Galesburg.
Smith, Mary, Jacksonville.
Smith, Nora, Tuscola.
Smith, W. Don, Polo.
Smyser, W. D., Niles Centre.
Snees, John H., E. St. Louis.
Snyder, Adel, Virginia.
Snyder, Charles C., Freeport.
Snyder, Gertie, Lanark.
Snow, C. P., Princeton.
Soby, W., Jacksonville.
Spark, Esther, Lewiston.
Spawn, M. G., Roscoe.
Speer, W. W., Normal.
Spencer, W., Chicago.
Sperling, Sadie, Bushnell.
Spickler, Bertha, Geneseo.
Spottswood, Mary C., Rockford.
Sprague, Lucy, Bement.
Sprague, L., Pecatonica.
Spriggs, J. S., Monmouth.
Springer, D. M., Chicago.
Springer, Mary M., Chicago.
Sproat, Helen, Oak Lawn.
Stamm, Gertrude, Taylorville.
Standish, J. V. N., Galesburg.
Starkey, A. W., Quincy.
Starrett, Helen E., Chicago.
Stave, H. J., Chicago.
Steele, Eunice A., Maywood.
Steidley, H. M., Greenview.
Stelman, J. H., Avondale.
Sterrett, M. A., Monmouth.
Stevens, Emma, Galena.
Stevens, Susie C., Chicago.
Stewart, Ida, Champaign.
Stewart, Kitty, Oregon.
Stewart, Sereta L., Quincy.
Stevenson, E. E., Neponset.
Stevenson, Mary S., Rushville.
Stiver, P. O., Freeport.
Stoddard, H. A., Rockford.
Stoddard, Kate, Sterling.
Stone, Cora B., Princeton.
Stone, George W., Princeton.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Stover, D. M., Rushville.
Stowell, C. G., Chicago.
Straight, Dora, Cullam.
Stratford, Emma F., Moline.
Strawder, H. A., Morrison.
Strive, Alice, Springfield.
Strive, Clinnie, Springfield.
Strive, Mary, Springfield.
Strive, Miss, Springfield.
Strong, A. A., Napervill.
Strong, Mrs. Emma, Eaglewood.
Strong, M. Evelyn, Galesburg.
Stryker, R. H., Brighton Park.
Stuart, Emily H., Chicago.
Stuart, Fannie, Champaign.
Stube, J. H., Pacific Junction.
Stube, M. G., Rochester.
Stults, A. S., La Grange.
Summers, C. P., Englewood.
Swain, Jennie, Creston.
Swan, C. I., Pittsfield.
Sweeney, Lizzie, Lake View.
Swift, Ellsworth, Rock Falls.
Syfurt, M. Ida, Peoria.
Tague, Mary, Moline.
Talbot, George I., De Kalb.
Tavener, James W., Normal.
Taylor, Lillian F., Galesburg.
Teeple, Charles G., Marengo.
Telford, Janet, Chicago.
Terhume, John C., S. Evanston.
Terpenning, Mary C., Naponset,
Terrell, Mary E., S. Evanston.
Thissell, Alice P., Chicago.
Thomas, Belle, Normal Park.
Thomas, Frederica, Chicago.
Thomas, Kate A., Wyoming.
Thomas, L. A., La Salle.
Thomas, Laura, Bloomington.
Thomas, Mary, Bement.
Thomas, Mary E., New Milford.
Thompson, Nathan, Elgin.
Thompson, W. M., Pittsfield.
Thompson, W. W., Harvard.
Thornburgh, J. D., Chicago.
Thornton, Nell, Pontiac.
Thorp, D. R. A., Ottawa.
Thresher, Mrs. M. E., Englewood.
Tinkey, Lizzie E., Greenville.
Tobey, S. S., Ridgeland.
Todd, Mary A., Aurora.
Tomlins, Ida, Macon.
Toohey, Agnes A., Alton.
Tracey, F. N., Kankakee.
Trainer, John, Decatur.
Treat, Mrs. L. W., Chicago.
Tressler, Florence, Chicago.
Tripp, F. A., Chicago.
Troendle, Lina, Lake View.
Trowbridge, O. R., Lacon.
Trowbridge, Mrs. O. W., Lacon.
True, Lucetta C., Chicago.
Tryon, Louise, Galesburg.
Tuck, Angie M., Plymouth.
Tucker, Carrie E., Ottawa.
Tucker, Hattie L., Rockford.
Tuttle, A. J., Decatur.
Tuttle, Sarah E., Woodlawn Park.
Twitmeyer, H. B., Dakota.
Ulrich, Barton A., Chicago.
Underhill, Volney, Chicago.
Updegraff, A., Macomb.
Vaile, Anna E., Rochelle.
Vaile, Jonathan, Oak Park.
Valle, Mary, Rochelle.
Vanansdale, Ella B., Chicago.
Vandercook, L. Bee, Cherry Valley.
Vandervort, Belle, Tiskilwa.
Vandewater, W. E., Bloom.
Van Liew, C. C., Hinsdale.
Van Saulford, Nettie, Stirling.
Vaughan, Mary E., Decatur.
Veatch, N. T., Rushville.
Vial, Jennie M., Englewood
Victor, Annie, Normal.
Victor, Maggie M., Normal.
Virden, Jessie, Galena.
Virden, Nellie, Galena.
Virgin, Ida, Virginia.
Vogel, H. F., Chicago.
Vokeln, H., Springfield.
Vosburg, Anna, Pullman.
Wade, I. W., Champaign.
Wade, Mrs. I. W., Champaign.
Wadell, Mary, Tuscola.
Wadhams, John A., Chicago.
Wadsworth, S. B., Oregon.
Waggoner, E. L., Lebanon.
Waggoner, S. E., Quincy.
Wagner, Mrs. Jennie E., Shelbyville.
Waid, D. E., Monmouth.
Wait, M. A., Hyde Park.
Waldo, Jennie, Rockford.
Wallace, Juliet A., Ottawa.
Walsh, E. J., Chicago.
Walsh, Mary, Sheffield.
Walker, A. W., Arlington Height.
Walker, Clara, Chicago.
Walker, J. H., Jacksonville.
Walker, James H., Normal.
Walker, R., Clinton.
Walker, R. R., Rockford.
Walker, Robert, Clinton.
Walker, Sylvia E., Chicago.
Ward, Edward L., Tamaroa.
Ward, F. A., Bloomington.
Ward, J. L., Eureka.
Ward, M. L., Bloomington.
Warner, Blanche, Nora.
Warner, C. I., Chicago.
Warner, Clara, Rockford.
Warner, G. W., Nora.
Warner, Mrs. G. W., Nora.
Warner, Mary, Nora.
Warren, Alice R., Belvidere.
Warren, Anna, Belvidere.
Warren, C. D., Evanston.
Warren E. F. Tower Hill.

ILLINOIS. (*Continued.*)

Warren, Emma, Belvidere.
Wash, James R., Pontiac.
Waterbury, Julia, Polo.
Waterbury, Minnie G., Polo.
Waters, Mary C., Pontiac.
Watkins, V. B., Hopedale.
Watson, C. H., Wyanet.
Watson, Mina, Ridge Farm.
Watt, C. H., Sparland.
Watt, W. E., Chicago.
Way, Mary R., Virginia.
Wayman, John N., Yorkville.
Weanes, Emily, Chicago.
Webb, Ida, Kankakee.
Webb, Mrs. F., Springfield.
Webber, Anna, Urbana.
Webster, E. C., Dixon.
Weeks, Netta E., Chicago.
Weir, W. T., Spring Hill.
Weisenberg, Iva, Collensville.
Welch, Martha, Chicago.
Welman, Lulia, Normal Park.
Werley, Emma, La Salle.
Wescott, O. S., Chicago.
West, Anna, Oneida.
Wheeler, Agnes, Cherry Valley.
Wheeler, Helen, Cherry Valley.
Wheeler, Julia, Batavia.
Whitcome, Lena M., Englewood.
Whitcome, Mary S., Urbana.
White, D. A., Chicago.
White, F. V., Galva.
White, Jennie P., Peoria.
White, Mrs. Jennie M., Peoria.
White, Laura E., Pullman.
White, W. P., Monmouth.
Whitham, Alice, Schapville.
Whitham, J. E., Aledo.
Whitham, K. M., Keithsburg.
Whitham, Mrs. K. M., Keithsburg.
Whitmore, Eva B., Chicago.
Whitney, Ida H., Geneseo.
Whitney, Mrs. M. H., Galesburg.
Whittaker, K. G., Eureka.
Whittimore, Hattie, De Kalb.
Wicks, Emma, Chicago.
Wicks, Wm. R., Oak Park.
Wight, Mary J., Rockford.
Wilbanks, Florence, Mt. Vernon.
Wilbur, Ida E., Galesburg.
Wilcox, Susan E., Springfield.
Wilcoxson, F. R., Lewistown.
Wiley, Mrs. D. S., Elmwood.
Wiley, M. L., Monmouth.
Wiley, Nettie, Elmwood.
Wilkinson, J. J., Decatur.
Will, Thomas E., Springfield.
Willard, A. M., Chicago.
Willard, Laura, Chicago.
Willett, M., Kirkwood.
Willey, Mrs. Jane, Decatur.
Williams, E. P., Delevan.
Williams, J.. Geneseo.
Williams, L., Galesburg.
Williams, Martha, Quincy.
Williams, Mary, Belvidere.
Willis, Ada, Loda.
Willmott, May, Chicago.
Willy, Paulina, Galena.
Wilson, Adelaide, Hinsdale.
Wilson, Andrew, Grand Crossing.
Wilson, Benj. T. F. Chicago.
Wilson, F. C., Bradford.
Wilson, Mrs. F. C., Bradford.
Wilson, F. T., Rochelle.
Wilson, Maggie J., Rock Island.
Wilson, May, Rock Island.
Wilson, Ritta, Biggsville.
Winbigler, Alice, Monmouth.
Wine, J. B., Milledgeville.
Winship, Hattie, Princeton.
Winters, Bessie, Springfield.
Withers, Fannie J., Englewood.
Witherspoon, Nellie, Hillsborough.
Wolcott, M., Geneseo.
Wolfe, Ellen, Polo.
Wollank, E. M., Princeton.
Wollman, Wm., Chicago.
Wood, Catharine, Springfield.
Wood, Frances, Jacksonville.
Wood, Lizzie, Springfield.
Wood, W. H., Belvidere.
Woodcock, Sarah, Chicago.
Woods, F. M., Chicago.
Woods, Maggie E., Chicago.
Woodward, Mamie H., Bloomington.
Workman, Alice, Sullivan.
Worrall, Tella, Geneseo.
Wren, J. S., McLean.
Wright, Anna, Moline.
Wright, Gertrude, Springfield.
Wyckoff, Gertrude, Galesburg.
Wyckoff, Grace, Galesburg.
Yocum, Emma M., Greenville.
Yocum, Rosa, Delevan.
Young, Edith M., Roscoe.
Young, Mrs. Ella F., Chicago.
Zeis, J. Henry, Englewood.
Zinser, J. C., Belvidere.
Zugschwerdt, John, Fair Haven.

INDIANA.

Ahern, Nellie. Peru.
Aldrich, Mrs. M., Indianapolis.
Alexander, W. P., Logansport.
Allen, Josie L., Orleans.
Allen, Mary E., Orleans.
Allen, P. A., Bluffton.
Allen, Mrs. P. A., Bluffton.
Allen, Willette, La Porte.
Ames, Wm. L., Terre Haute.
Andrews, A. Kate, La Fayette.

INDIANA. (*Continued*).

Appenfield, Alice, Princeton.
Armstrong, Ida, Peru.
Bader, Dan., New Albany.
Baker, Anna M., South Bend.
Baker, E. E., Indianapolis.
Baldwin, L. S., Westfield.
Bales, Mira, Knightstown.
Ball, Anna M., La Fayette.
Ballard, N. G., Clearmont.
Banta, W. H., Valparaiso.
Barnett, B., Indianapolis.
Bass, Florence, Indianapolis.
Bass, Geo. F., Indianapolis.
Batty, Fannie, Nyesville.
Banter, Helen, Butler.
Beck, Jas. K., Bloomington.
Beck, Sophia, Princeton.
Bemloehr, Chris. F.
Bentley, M. P., Aledo.
Bernhart, John, Indianapolis.
Biegler, E. M., Ft. Wayne.
Billings, Grace A., Lagrange.
Bish, Mary, Hinckley.
Blair, Rose B., La Porte.
Blaker, Eliza A., Indianapolis.
Blasdell, Jane, Gifford.
Bolinger, P. H., N. Manchester.
Bothwell, C. L., Lagrange.
Bowen, W. J., Fowler.
Bowman, Anna, Monticello.
Bowman, Georgie, Monticello.
Bridgford, A. B., Indianapolis.
Bridgman, Mrs. Alice S., Salem.
Bridgman, J. M., Salem.
Brockway, Clara, Fowler.
Brothers, Mrs. E. D., Decatur.
Brown, Annie M., Richmond.
Brown, Carrie H., Indianapolis.
Brown, Jessie H., Indianapolis.
Brown, Julia, Indianapolis.
Brown, Mrs. Lucy, Indianapolis.
Brown, Mary, Indianapolis.
Brown, Mollie, Bedford.
Brundage, Lottie, Butler.
Bundy, Mrs. W. N., Valparaiso.
Byers, W. W., Terre Haute.
Byers, Mrs. W. W., Terre Haute.
Calkins, Mary L., Indianapolis.
Campbell, F. S., Crawfordsville.
Carhart, J., Greencastle.
Carmody, J. D., Evansville.
Carr, Lina, Indianapolis.
Charlton, J. D., Plainfield.
Choplur, Erasmus M., Warsaw.
Christian, Irena R., Granger.
Churchman, M. E., Indianapolis.
Churchman, M. M., Indianapolis.
Clegg, Orpha, La Fayette.
Cobb, E. S., Terre Haute.
Coffman, J., Attica.
Cole, G. M., Richmond.
Compton, Emma, La Fayette.
Connolly, Jennie, La Fayette.
Connolly, Mary, La Fayette.
Coulter, John M., Crawfordsville.
Cox, Bessie G., Kokomo.
Cox, Sheridan, Kokomo.
Cox, Stanley, New Albany.
Cragun, S. N., Lebanon.
Craig, Oscar J., La Fayette.
Craig, Wm. M., Waveland.
Crain, L. D., Angola.
Crain, Z. A., Angola.
Crawford, Sallie, South Bend.
Critchet, A. J., Ft. Wayne.
Cromer, F. Gillum, Union City.
Cropsey, N., Indianapolis.
Cunningham, M. E., Ligonier.
Cutler, Mary H., La Porte.
Daud, Alice, Indianapolis.
David, Dollie, Indianapolis.
David, Lillie, Indianapolis.
Davis, M. E., Indianapolis.
Denby, Julia, Greencastle.
Denver, A. V., Dublin.
Dibbs, Julia, Indianapolis.
Dickinson, A. E., Indianapolis.
Doll, Maggie, La Fayette.
Doy, Josie M., Indianapolis.
Dufendach, H., Huntington.
Duff, W. H., Lima.
Duncan, Anna, Princeton.
Duncan, Delle, Princeton.
Dunkle, A. W., Delphi.
Durand, J. A., Lima.
Dushane, J., South Bend.
Duy, L. G., Indianapolis.
Dyer, Charity, Indianapolis.
Enfield, S. C., La Fayette.
Ensminger, Joe, Evansville.
Erwin, Anna, Princeton.
Ettinger, Zoie, Angola.
Everhard, Eulalia, Warsaw.
Ewers, V. M., La Porte.
Ewing, J. C., South Bend.
Fairfield, Mary F., Indianapolis.
Farrow, Edestina, Greencastle.
Fast, Nettie, Angola.
Festler, Bert, Bloomington.
Field, Kate E., Attica.
Finney, Mary, Muncie.
Fleisher, George L., Lyman.
Flick, W. B., Indianapolis.
Flick, Mrs. W. B., Indianapolis.
Ford, Fred., Indianapolis.
Forsythe, Alice, Indianapolis.
Forsythe, S. K., Trafalgar.
Fox, Theresa, Richmond.
Frederickson, Annie E., La Porte.
Fullenloon, M. V., New Albany.
Fullis, Anna, Attica.
Funk, J. P., Corydon.
Gavin, E. M., Indianapolis.
Gavin, John F., Indianapolis.
Gibson, Dora, Indianapolis.
Glover, Mary, Bedford.
Goodwin, Helena, New Castle.
Goodwin, Ota, New Castle.

INDIANA. (*Continued.*)

Gosney, Florence, Indianapolis.
Gosney, Lucy, Indianapolis.
Griffin, Mrs. C. F., Indianapolis.
Gundelfinger, Sarah, Indianapolis.
Gunton, Emily, Evansville.
Hailmann, Eudora, La Porte.
Hailmann, W. N., La Porte.
Haimbaugh, F. D., Rochester.
Haines, F. A., Carmel.
Haines, J. F., Noblesville.
Hall, Emma L., Indianapolis.
Hammond, Nettie E., La Porte.
Hancock, Emily S., Indianapolis.
Hancock, Lizzie, Rockford.
Hansell, Geo. H., Guilford.
Hart, Nellie B., Elkhart.
Hawley, Mary, Elkhart.
Hayes, Thos. A., Mitchell.
Hayes, Willa, Attica.
Hazelrigg, W. S., Indianapolis.
Hazlett, M., La Fayette.
Heath, W. F., Richmond.
Heiney, Wm. M., Mt. Etna.
Henry, Jas. H., Martinsville.
Hessory, May C., Indianapolis.
Hill, Margaret M., Rensselaer.
Himnam, L., Huntington.
Hlinefelter, Laura, Merrillville.
Hoch, Emily, Winamac.
Hochsedler, Mary E., Granger.
Hoffman, Genevra, Seymour.
Hoffman, G. W., Indianapolis
Hoffman, Horace A., Auburn.
Hoffman, M. L., Auburn.
Hohn, M. A., Crown Point.
Holman, J. E., Kokomo.
Holmes, Albert, Jeffersonville.
Holmes, Basil, Jeffersonville.
Hoover, J. W., New Albany.
Hoover, M. E., New Albany.
Hood, J. T., Indianapolis.
Horney, Lizzie L., Richmond.
Horney, Mattie, Richmond.
Horney, Susie, Richmond.
Hornbrook, Mrs. A. R., Evansville.
Houston, Mary, Elkhart.
Howe, Mrs. R., Indianapolis.
Hubbard, W. J., Delphi.
Hubbell, O., Indianapolis.
Hubbell, Tom, Butler.
Huddleson, J. M., Princeton.
Hufford, Geo. W., Indianapolis.
Hunter, Louise, Rochester.
Hutchins, E. A., Noblesville.
Isgrigg, J. E., Indianapolis.
Jackman, Hattie, Elkhart.
Jacobs, H. B., Indianapolis.
Jarrett, C. A., Booneville.
Johnson, Flora, Indianapolis.
Johnson, Grace, South Bend.
Johnson, Helen, South Bend.
Jones, C. C., Indianapolis.
Jones, Hannah, Indianapolis.
Jones, H. M., Richmond.
Jones, L. H., Indianapolis.
Jones, Mrs. S. A., Indianapolis.
Kealing, Effie, Indianapolis.
Keeran, Laura, Auburn.
Kehlenback, Mrs. H., Pleasant.
Kehlenback, M. E., Pleasant.
Kellogg, Ida, La Fayette.
Kenaston, G. F., Noblesville.
Kendall, Margaretta, Richmond.
Kennedy, P. A. B., Indianapolis.
Keshling, Lizzie, Logansport.
Kester, Amelia D., Butler.
Ketchum, Margaret, Goshen.
Kimmeel, A. J., Candleville.
Kinney, Emily, Angola.
Kinsely, Alex., Columbia City.
Koehler, S. V., Madison.
Kregelo, Mrs. Louisa, Indianapolis.
Ladd, Clara, Fowler.
La Follette, H. M., Indianapolis.
Latta, W. C., La Fayette.
Leeson, Emma, Jacksonburg.
Lemp, Myra, Covington.
Lemp, Nettie, Covington.
Lewis, F. D., Hatch's Mill.
Lewis, Jessie, Rockville.
Lewis, Mamie, Dupont.
Lindley, Mary E., Elizabethtown.
Lindley, Sarah, Elizabethtown.
Long, Hattie, Warsaw.
Loomis, Alice, Jeffersonville.
Love, Edith, Muncie.
Love, Nannie, Muncie.
Lowe, Edith, Muncie.
Lowe, Nannie, Muncie.
Luckney, Bertha M., Decatur.
Luckney, G. W., Decatur.
Lytle, M. C., Tell City.
Machan, E. G., La Grange.
McCracken, Fannie, Delphi.
McCracken, S. B., Delphi.
McCurdy, Anna, Princeton.
McDonald, Annie, Mitchell.
McDermont, Anns, Bloomington.
McDowell, Hattie, Frankfort.
McFarland, Eva, Peru.
McFarland, R. A., Peru.
McIntyre, A., Warsaw.
McKinney, E. S., Evansville.
McLair, H. J., Crawfordsville.
McRea, Mrs. E. M., Marion.
Malay, Path, Richmond.
Manning, Geo. G., Peru.
Mansfield, Mrs. Belle A., Greencastle.
Manzy, G. L., Rushville.
Martin, E. E., Charlestown.
Mason, H. J., Butler.
Mason, H. M., Butler.
Maaslich, Chester B., Union City.
Mauk, L., Evansville.
Memliard, Lily, South Bend.
Mendhall, Lillie, Indianapolis.
Merchant, Ella, La Porte.
Meyer, Clotilda, South Bend.

INDIANA. (*Continued.*)

Miller, Carrie, Mulberry.
Miller, Frank, Indianapolis.
Mill's, F. E,. La Grange.
Monical, H. W., Brooklyn.
Montgomery, Elsie, Owensville.
Montgomery, Jessie L., Jeffersonville.
Montgomery, Mrs. M. L., Jeffersonville.
Montgomery, Sadie, Jeffersonville.
Moore, B. F., Monticello.
Moore Hannah, Butlerville.
Moore, Ida, Frankfort.
Moore, Lizzie, Monticello.
Moore, Mary, Muncie.
Morgan, Jessie, Trafalgal.
Morgan, Louis, Indianapolis.
Morris, Ruth, Terre Haute.
Murphy, Daniel W., Butler.
Neidigh, S. P., Nashville.
Nelson, Olive, Auburn.
Newkirk, Myra E., Rockford.
Newlin, C. E., Frankfort.
Newly, A. J., Evansville.
Newly, Chas., Monsoria.
Newly, Ettie, Kokomo
Nicholson, Jennie, Indianapolis.
Nicholson, Mary E., Indianapolis.
Nitmer, Effie, Goshen.
Nourse, J. W., Rockfort.
Nuobaum, Alice, Goshen.
Ogle, A. M., Indianapolis.
O'Hara, Mrs. M., Indianapolis.
Olcott, E. E., North Vernon.
Orear, M. F., Jamestown.
Orear, O. P., Jamestown.
Owen, W. B., Edinburg.
Pancake, Jennie E., Elkhart.
Parker, Mrs. Manetta, Ozalia.
Parr, S. S., Greencastle.
Parry, Hattie, La Grange.
Parsons, Mrs., New Albany.
Parsons, W. W., Terre Haute.
Perkins, Andrew, New Albany.
Phillips, Mrs. C. M., Franklin.
Phillips, R., Franklin.
Pitcher, Emma, Williamsport.
Porter, Hattie, Garret.
Pow, Eliza J., Indianapolis.
Preston, Paul, La Porte.
Pretton, Clotilde, Dublin.
Price, Maggie, Crawfordsville.
Price, Mercy, Crawfordsville.
Purdy, Kate, Terre Haute.
Purma, Ella, Monroeville.
Rank, Al., Attica.
Rankin, Hattie L., Orleans.
Rathfon, Anna, Logansport.
Rees, Naunie A., Delphi.
Reid, V. T., Salem.
Rihl, Mattie, Indianapolis.
Riley, Addie, Bedford.
Robinson, Dove, Owensville.
Robinson, E. J., Indianapolis.
Robinson, Jessie, Princeton.
Robinson, Mollie, Indianapolis.
Robinson, W. D., Princeton.
Rooker, W. V., Indianapolis.
Ross, Fannie, Noblesville.
Rowley, Grace A., Elkhart.
Samuels, Bailey, Columbia.
Samuels, Mrs. R., Columbia.
Sanders, Amos, North Vernon.
Sanders, Huldah, West Newton.
Sanders, R. A. A., North Vernon.
Sanders, Thomas J., Warsaw.
Schwartz, Tillie, Indianapolis.
Segur, Lell, Angola.
Seiler, M., Hudson.
Sellick, Rhoda E., Indianapolis.
Shafer, C. E., North Manchester.
Shaffer, J. C., Richmond.
Sheets, E. P., Greencastle.
Sheets, Hattie, Greencastle.
Shephard, Harriet, Indianapolis.
Shephardson, E., Shoals.
Silburn, Anna, Ligonier.
Simpson, Kate, Princeton.
Smead, Mary R., Salem.
Smith, Cyrus, Indianapolis.
Smith, E. R., La Fayette.
Smith, G. W., Malone.
Smith, Jessie J., Indianapolis.
Smith, L. B., Fowler.
Smith, L. C., Ft. Wayne.
Smith, Margaret, Ft. Wayne.
Smith, Spencer R., Ft. Wayne.
Smith, T. M., New Albany.
Snoke, A. J., Princeton.
Snyder, Mrs. N. B., Muncie.
Snyder, W. R., Muncie.
Snynder, Cora, Angola.
Squires, M. K., New Albany.
Stahl, Alice, Rochester.
Starky, J. R., Martensville.
Sterling, Otway C., Camden.
Stevens, A. B., Angola.
Stevenson, Emma, South Bend.
Stoddard, Eva. H., Shelbyville.
Stoy, Mrs. C. S., Butler.
Strader, E. J., Bloomington.
Straughn, Caroline, Ft. Wayne.
Strickler, J. P., N. Manchester.
Strickler, Mrs. J. P., N. Manchester.
Stutesman, Ida, Peru.
Stutesman, Lada, Peru.
Surbey, F. M., Indianapolis.
Sweet, M. Eliza, La Porte.
Taylor, Edward, Vincennes.
Taylor, Mrs. L. B., Vincennes.
Test, Hannah M., Richmond.
Thomas, D. W., Elkhart.
Thomas, Jennie, Williamsport.
Thompson, Mary P., Crawfordville.
Throop, Jennie, Paoli.
Throop, Rebecca, Paoli.
Tilford, Mrs. J. A., New Albany.
Towle, Wm. N., Terre Haute.
Torr, Eva, Greencastle.
Trautman, C. A., Columbus.

INDIANA. (*Continued*).

Tyler, Alice E., Muncie.
Tyler, J. M., Terre Haute.
Tyler, H. E., Terre Haute.
Underwood, R. L., Barry.
Unthank, Alice, Goshen.
Van Mote. S. A., La Porte.
Voorhees, George L., Crown Point.
Waggener, Dora, Indianapolis.
Wagner, Sarah, La Porte.
Wair, May, La Porte.
Walden, M. C., Vevay.
Walker, Mrs. M., New Albany.
Wall, J. M., Clermont.
Ward, H. W., Odon.
Ward, J. A., Odon.
Watters, F. M., Greensburg.
Weaver, Ida, Angola.
Welch, Emma, Angola.
Wentz, Kate, La Fayette.
Werst, Florence, South Bend.
Whitsit, Belle, Indianapolis.
Whiteleather, A. J., Bourbon.
Wiegman, Karl, Rockport.
Wilcox, Dora E., Remington.
Wilcox, Miranda, Remington.
Wiley, Wm. H., Terre Haute.
Williams, Landonia, Richmond.
Williams, Wm. J., Franklin.
Willis, W. S., Indianapolis.
Wilson, Kate C., Indianapolis.
Winesburg, Mattie, No. Manchester.
Wood, Hattie C., Indianapolis.
Wood, Mrs. L. H., Seymour.
Wood, R. W., Jeffersonville.
Wood, Wm. S., Seymour.
Woodruff, Delia, New Albany.
Woodward, John T., Stanford.
Woody, H. J., Kokoma.
Worley, Mrs. Frank, Ellettsville.
Wright, E. W., Kendallville.
Wyeth, A. S., Terre Haute.
Yeoman, S. M., Indianapolis.
Yocum, W. F., Ft. Wayne.
Zeller, J. A., La Fayette.

IOWA.

Abernethy, Bertie, Sioux City.
Abernethy, M. A., Sioux City.
Abernethy, Mrs. M. A., Sioux City.
Adams, Nellie, Dubuque.
Adams, Sarah L., Muscantine.
Akers, J. W., Des Moines.
Akers, Mrs. J. W., Des Moines.
Alcombrach, L. P., Cedar Rapids.
Alaxander, Rosa B., Logansport.
Alexander, Alice, Davenport.
Alexander, Jennie, Lisbon.
Alexandra, Ada, Davenport.
Allen, E., Sioux City.
Allen, E. A., Davenport.
Allen, Mrs. E. D., Sioux City.
Allen, Lizzie, Manchester.
Allen, Minnie, Sioux City.
Allen, O. B., Charles City.
Allimstrong, Sioux City.
Almond, Libbie A., Fayette.
Amberston, L., Marshalltown.
Ames, Mrs. L. B., Des Moines.
Ames, Mattie, Des Moines.
Ammunds, Andrew, Sioux City.
Anderson, Bessie, College Springs.
Anderson, T. P., Hepworth.
Anderson, Sioux City.
Anderson, L., Hepworth.
Andrew, Barbara, Hepworth.
Andrews, A. Edith, Nugent.
Andrews, Mrs. A. M., Sioux City.
Andrews, E. J., Nashua.
Ary, Anna, Nugent.
Ashford, Mary, Sioux City.
Asseler, Theresa, Decorah.
Aikins, Amelia, Charles City.
Atkins, H. C., Council Bluffs.
Austin, Geo. H., Tama City.
Avey, Alice, Oskaloosa.
Ayers, J. T., Charles City.
Backus, Florence, Keokuk.
Bacon, C. W., Keithsburg.
Bacon, Mrs. C. W., Keithsburg.
Bailey, C. T., Grand Centre.
Baker, Mrs. A. A., Newell.
Baker, Jennie E., Danversport.
Baker, Libbie, Farley.
Baker, W. C., Newell.
Balch, Louise A., Lyons.
Baldwin. C. L., Farley.
Baldwin, Janie B., Council Bluffs.
Ballantyne, Mary D., Brooklyn.
Bamber, Clara, Iowa Falls.
Banholtz, Dora, Des Moines.
Barber, Jas. E., Cedar Rapids.
Barker, Esta, Prairieburgh.
Barker, Kittie, Prairieburgh.
Barnes, Adelia L., Maquoketa.
Barnes, Carrie, Charles City.
Barngrover, H. M., Adel.
Barr, Hester, New London.
Bartlettt, M. W., Cedar Falls.
Bartlett, Owen, Charles City.
Barton, Ellen H., Mason City.
Barton, Vesta, Mason City.
Bassett, Harry A., Blairstown.
Bates, W., Waterloo.
Bayliss, Mrs. A., Sterling.
Beauman, Geo. W., Independence.
Bear, Ben., Decorah.
Bear, Hester, Sioux City.
Bearce, Maria, Wankon.
Bedford, E., DeWitt.
Behenke, Ella, Davenport.

IOWA. *(Continued.)*

Bell, Wm. A., Clinton.
Bennett, Cynthia, Tripoli.
Bennett, Della, Tripoli.
Bennett, F. A., Davenport.
Bennett, G. A., Davenport.
Benson, Christine, Marshalltown.
Benson, E. W., Storm Lake.
Benson, Mae, Sibley.
Best, F. H., Traer.
Best, Mrs. F. H., Traer.
Bingham, Lizzie B., Cedar Falls.
Bingham, R. S., Cedar Falls.
Bingham, Mrs. R. S., Cedar Falls.
Binnie, Mrs. Gracie, Alta.
Birchard, C. E., Davenport.
Birchard, George, Newton.
Birchard, L. M., Davenport.
Bisbee, W. M., Independence.
Bissell, Mrs. F. P., Dubuque.
Bissell, J. W., Fayette.
Bissell, Mrs. J. W., Fayette.
Bissell, K. C., Dubuque.
Blair, Maggie, Davenport.
Blake, M., Nashua.
Blessing, Jennie M., Vinton.
Blessing, W. H., Vinton.
Blessing, Mrs. W. H., Vinton.
Boegel, Florence, Sigourney.
Bogen, C. C., Ottumwa.
Bolin, Ada B., Council Bluffs.
Bolton, Lewis E., Des Moines.
Bolton, Mrs. Lewis E., Des Moines.
Bolton, Sophie, Des Moines.
Bond, Lina Mae, Denison.
Booth, E. M., Iowa City.
Borard, Alice K., Bellevue.
Boutelle, Clarence M., Decorah.
Bovell, Mary A., Oskaloosa.
Bowen, J. A., Des Moines.
Boyed, Emma, Sigourney.
Boyes, M., Dubuque.
Boyes, Mrs. N. M., Dubuque.
Boylston, Anna, Waverly.
Bradley, Belle, Manchester.
Bradshaw, E. N., Davenport.
Bradstream, Jennie, Mt. Auburn.
Brady, A. C., Richland.
Brady, Mrs. Emma, Richland.
Brainard, Mrs. J. M., Waterloo.
Breckenridge, J., Decorah.
Breckenridge, Mrs. J., Decorah.
Breese, Mrs. May, Clarence.
Breston, Edward, Dubuque.
Brice, May, Tama City.
Broadfield, Anna A., Keokuk.
Broadfield, Lizzie, Keokuk.
Brocker, G. F., Council Bluffs.
Brogan, M. E., New Sharon.
Brooks, Cora, Lion.
Brotherlin, Florence, De Claire.
Brown, C. Belle, Oskaloosa.
Brown, E., Baldwin.
Brown, E. A., Sergeant Bluff.
Brown, Mrs. E. A., Sergeant Bluff.
Brown, H. I., Sioux City.
Brown, Jessie, McGregor.
Brown, K. L., West Liberty.
Brown, L. M., Davenport.
Brown, Wm., Cedar Rapids.
Bumner, Wm., Rockford.
Buchanan, A. E., Washington.
Buck, Edith C., Grinnell.
Buck, J. C., Grinnell.
Buck, S. J., Grinnell.
Bunting, Effie, Marion.
Burg, Kate M., Burlington.
Burnham, Mary E., Clinton.
Burt, Maggie J., Burlington.
Burt, Sarah R., Burlington.
Bushnell, H. T., Davenport.
Butler, S. C., Jacksonville.
Butts, Mrs., Des Moines.
Byers, Carrie, Oskaloosa.
Byers, Kate, Oskaloosa.
Bywater, W. L., Garwin.
Calkins, Elva, Wyoming.
Caldwell, Mrs. S. A., Marion.
Cameron, J., Dubuque.
Campbell, A. E., Emerson.
Campbell, Mrs. F. J., Rock Valley.
Campbell, F. M., Des Moines.
Campbell, Mary M., De Witt.
Campbell, M. L., Des Moines.
Canney, Charles, Creston.
Carey, Bertha, Algona.
Carmichael, E. L., Tama City.
Carmichael, H. F., Tama City.
Carpenter, Ella, Sumner.
Carpenter, Hattie, Sumner.
Carpenter, Josiah, Sumner.
Carpenter, Mrs. J., Sumner.
Carr, G. H., Nashua.
Carr, Nettie, Montezuma.
Carrier, Imogene, Albia.
Carson, C. H., Anita.
Carebeer, Bessie, Tipton.
Cassidy, Fanny, Des Moines.
Cavanough, Mrs. Margaret, Dubuque.
Chamberlain, Minnie, Clarinda.
Chandler, A. A., Decorah.
Chapel, Martha A., Sioux City.
Chapin, A. W., Sioux City.
Chappell, Elsie, Tipton.
Chappell, Emma, Tipton.
Chappell, Mary, Tipton.
Charles, Florence, Sioux City.
Cheney, Mrs. O. O., Charles City.
Chevalier, W. F., Annes.
Christian, E. F., Waterloo.
Clapp, D. W., Council Bluffs.
Clapp, O. W., Council Bluffs.
Clark, E. S., Dubuque.
Clark, R., Dubuque.
Clark, W. W., Boone.
Cleaves, Jennie, Davenport.
Cleves, Mrs. R. L., Cherokee.
Coddington, Jessie A., Janesville.
Coe, J. M., Sloan.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Coe, Mrs. J. M., Sloan.
Coffman, Luella, Dysart.
Coles, June, Carroll.
Coleman, Alta, Decorah.
Colgrose, C. P., Waukon.
Collins, Chas., Bellevue.
Coming, Julia, Des Moines.
Cook, Florence, Monmouth.
Cooke, Mrs. Irene M., Indianola.
Cooley, E. G., Cresco.
Cooper, Anna, Cedar Rapids.
Corbin, Helen, Rockford.
Coslo, Rose, Le Mars.
Couch, Ellen J., Cedar Rapids.
Coulton, Maggie, Waverly.
Courtney, Dora, Marion.
Coverston, G. W., Muscatine.
Coy, C., Council Rapids.
Cramer, Emma, Atlantic.
Cramer, W. F., Waverly.
Crandall, Helen, Des Moines.
Cressey, E. L , Des Moines.
Cressey, J. L., Des Moines.
Cresswell, Grace, Davenport.
Crombie, F. H., Atlantic.
Crossby, W. A., Ft. Dodge.
Crowell, Mary, Charles City.
Crozier, G. W., Council Bluffs.
Crusinberry, W. A., Floyd.
Culver, D. S., Sioux City.
Culver, H. F., Sioux City.
Cummings, Lora L., Brooklyn.
Cummins, A. H., Mason City.
Cummins, J. C., Mason City.
Curley, Iren, McGregor.
Curly, Minnie A., Des Moines.
Currier, A. N., Iowa City.
Curtis, C. N., Mt. Pleasant.
Curtis, Lucy, State Centre.
Curtiss, S. H., Waverly.
Dalglush, Fannie, Rock Rapids.
Daniels A. R., McGregor.
Daniels C. W., Independence.
Danvin, A. R., Burlington.
Darling, Cora B., Postville.
Daugherty, Hannah M., Ottumwa.
Daugherty, Mary E., Ottumwa.
Daugherty, Maud, Washington.
David, Susan, Burlington.
Davies, J. O., Clear Lake.
Davis, Fannie, Essex.
Davis, J. T., Perry.
Davis, Lettie, Parkersburgh.
Davy, Mrs. Lyons.
Dawson, J. M., Grinnell.
Day, C. B., Tama City.
Deacon, E. H., Spencer.
Dean, W. J., What Cheer.
Decker, C. L., Clarence.
De Groff, Emma, Vinton.
Dietz, Wilhelm.
Denney, Ida, Des Moines.
Derby, L., Ackley.
Derby, Scott B., Spencer.
Derrell, Ida, Dennison.
Devine, Edward, Marshalltown.
Devlin, Dora F., Marion.
Devlin, Lillie M., Marion.
De Witt, Nellie, Wyoming.
Diamond, Alice, Le Mars.
Diamond, Flora, Le Mars.
Dibble, Fannie, Osceola.
Dickinson, Carrie, Manchester.
Dix, Cora A., Oskaloosa.
Doane, H. B., Dubuque.
Dobbs, Anna, Creston.
Dobbs, Emma, Creston.
Dobson, Amanda, Marshalltown.
Dodds, J. P., Sigourney.
Dodds, Mrs. J. P., Sigourney.
Dolan, J., Davenport.
Dolan, Mary E., Davenport.
Donnan, J. B., Independence.
Doolittle, Maggie, Washington.
Doolittle, Mary, Charles City.
Dornon, A. M., Mediapolis.
Dozon, W. A., Mt. Vernon.
Dozon, Mrs. W. A., Mt. Vernon.
Douglas, W. D., Cedar Rapids.
Dudley, C. C., Maquoketa.
Duffy, Alice E., Waukon.
Dumphy, J. P., Cedar Rapids.
Dunbar, Emma, Maquoketa.
Dunbar, Louis, Maquoketa.
Duncan, Janet, Mason City
Duncan, L. M., Cedar Rapids.
Duncan, S. B., Fayette.
Dunkleberry, W. B., Waterloo.
Dyas, Eva, Bellevue.
Dyas, Fannie, Bellevue.
Eade, L. M., Spencer.
Earhart, E., Epworth.
Early, A. M., Sioux City.
Eastman, Exie, Le Mars.
Eastman, S., Cherokee.
Easton, J. D., Waterloo.
Eaton, Fannie, Maquoketa.
Ebhert, Johanna, Charles City.
Edmond, Gertrude, Decorah.
Edwards, Carie, Le Claire.
Edwards, Ella, Clinton.
Eggert, C. A., Iowa City.
Eggert, Mrs. C. A., Iowa City.
Eisentrout, V. E., Iron Hill.
Elliot, Nellie, Le Claire.
Ellis, Ida M., Maquoketa.
Ellis, Mrs. J., Grant.
Ely, B. S., Cedar Rapids.
Enlow, Clara E., Clarence.
Ennis, Eva, Toledo.
Ensign, S. Laura, Cedar Falls.
Enz, Mena, Dubuque.
Ericson, E. L., Story City.
Esgate, E. J., Marion.
Evans, A. L., Manchester.
Evans, E. M., Lyons.
Evans, Mattie, Wilton.
Evans M. O., Cedar Rapids

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Evans, W. M., Manchester.
Everett, Florence, Des Moines.
Fagley, H. W., Cedar Rapids.
Fair, Jennie E., Cedar Rapids.
Falkenhainer, Anna, Sioux City.
Falkenhainer, Aug., Sioux City.
Faucett, Carrie, Burlington.
Fellows, Bertha, Blanstown.
Fellows, Lena, Iowa City.
Fellows, S. N., Iowa City.
Fellows, Mrs. S. N., Iowa City.
Felton, O. F., Mason City.
Fenner, M. C., Des Moines.
Fesler, Carrie, Grand Junction.
Fields, J. C., Cedar Falls.
Fields, W., Cedar Falls.
Fiester, S. F., Waverly.
Finnegan, Lillie, Montezuma.
Finnerty, Delia, Ottumwa.
Finney, Minnie L., Postville.
Firkins, Jennie, Vinton.
Fisher, Mrs. C. E., Webster City.
Fisher, F. P., Onawa.
Fitch, E. O., Charles City.
Fitch, Mrs. E. O., Charles City.
Flathers, Rosa, Maquoketa.
Fletcher, Clinton S., Atlantic.
Fletcher, Mrs. H. J., Atlantic.
Fletcher, M. B., Maquoketa.
Flinders, Anna, Cherokee.
Flude, H. L., Hopkinton.
Fobes, Agnes, Cherokee.
Fockler, P. H., Independence.
Fogg, E. P., Albion.
Ford, Frankie, Mitchell.
Forrest, Mrs. C., Cedar Rapids.
Forsyth, J. H., Trafalgar.
Foster, Emma C., Burlington.
Foster, Ida, Des Moines.
Fowler, G. V., Waterloo.
Fowler, Mrs. G. V., Waterloo.
Francis, Mary, Des Moines.
Franklin, Emma, Forest City.
Franklin, Geo. A., Forest City.
Frazier, Addie E., Lyons.
Freer, H. H., Mt. Vernon.
Freer, Mary, Mt. Vernon.
Fregen, Fannie, Des Moines.
Fremming, E. A., Ft. Dodge.
French, Phebe, Renwick.
Frink, Sadie, Clarence.
Fuller, Andrew, Wheatland.
Fuller, Augusta, Wheatland.
Fulton, Mary A., Atlantic.
Fultz, F. M., Wilton.
Gallup, Geo. H., Jefferson.
Garrettson, Mamie, Oscola.
Garrison, Aurea, Afton.
Gates, F. E., Cedar Falls.
Gates, R. S., Mt. Pleasant.
Gates, Mrs. R. S., Mt. Pleasant.
Gearen, F. H., Sioux City.
Geddes, D. H., Waterloo.
Gibson, Ella, Decorah.
Gloyd, L. M., Mason City.
Goldberger, M., Mapleton.
Goodman, J. M., Des Moines.
Goodno, G. F., Ames.
Goodrich, Delia, Denison.
Goodwin, C. L., Vinton.
Goodyear, S. H., Cedar Rapids.
Goss, B. R., Boone.
Goss, F. A., Jefferson.
Graham, F. E., Toledo.
Graham, H. J., Sioux City.
Graves, G. A., Iowa City.
Gray, Hattie, Grand View.
Gray, Jennie, Clinton.
Greeley, C. A., Nashua.
Green, Kate, Van Horn.
Greening, Jennie, Rudd.
Greening, Jennie, Charles City.
Greer, John, Davenport.
Griffin, John, Albion.
Griffith, A. S., Charles City.
Griffith, Mrs. A. S., Charles City.
Griffith, C. L., Iowa Falls.
Groat, Frances, Waterloo.
Grow, O. W., Council Bluffs.
Gurney, C. H., Shenandoah.
Gurney, J. R., Manchester.
Gurnsey, Ida D., Sioux City.
Hacker, T. H., Hampton.
Hacker, Mrs. T. H., Hampton.
Hadley, J. C., Eldora.
Hadley, Mattie, N. Providence.
Hagar, M. G., Davenport.
Halbert, Mertie, Marshalltown.
Hall, Anna B., Waukon.
Hall, Cornelia, Ottumwa.
Hall, Mrs. G. W., Nora Springs.
Hall, Mrs. Harriet, Waukon.
Hall, Minnie, Davenport.
Hall, Mrs. S. G., Alta.
Haller, A. S., Farley.
Hamilton, Gus A., Dubuque.
Hammond, H. E., Carroll.
Hammond, Mrs. H. E., Carroll.
Hand, Mary C., Charles City.
Handford, F. J., Charles City.
Hanna, Mrs. J. G., Des Moines.
Hannon, L. A., Sioux City.
Harding, J. H., Mason City.
Harding, N. H., Webster City.
Harold, Mrs., Clermont.
Harris, Laura M., Marion.
Harris, Linnie, West Liberty.
Harrison, Belle, Cromwell.
Harrison, L. D., Marble Rock.
Harrison, O. A., Cromwell.
Harrison, Mrs. W. H., Toledo.
Hart, A. D., Calmar.
Hastings, L. M., Manchester.
Hastings, M. A., Quasqueton.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Hatch, Mary A., Sumner.
Havens, Nan, Marshalltown.
Hays, Flora, Creston.
Hazard, M. A., Sergeant Bluffs.
Hazlett, Clara E., Waverly.
Heady, Mary, Cresco.
Heberling, Lottie E., Milo.
Hedge, M., Oskaloosa.
Heffelfinger, Edna, Denison.
Heffelfinger, Jennie, Denison.
Helm, L., Rock Falls.
Helvekerel, W., Council Bluffs.
Henderson, Emma, West Liberty.
Hendricks, J. P., Cedar Rapids.
Henton, Lola, Bellevue.
Heston, Hettie, Mt. Pleasant.
Hiatt, Amos, Des Moines.
Hibbard, Blanche, Davenport.
Hickox, H. H., Anamosa.
Hicks, Cora M., Decorah.
Hilbourn, Lillian, Le Claire.
Hill, J. P., Davenport.
Hill, W. B., Calmar.
Hill, Mrs. W. B., Calmar.
Hiller, Lydia B., Waterloo.
Hinsley, Lucy, McGregor.
Hiskey, W. H., Des Moines.
Hoadley, Julia B., Leon.
Hobein, W. C., Lyons.
Hoffarth, Maggie, What Cheer.
Holden, Geo. H., Burlington.
Holland, Anna, Des Moines.
Holmes, Carrie, Onslow.
Holmes, Eva R., Wyoming.
Holmes, M. A., What Cheer.
Holmes, Rebecca, Decorah.
Holt, A., Davenport.
Hopley, Mattie, Atlantic.
Hopley, Sophie, Atlantic.
Horsteller, Barbara, Marshalltown.
Horsteller, Mary, Marshalltown.
Houston, Ernestine, Glenwood.
Howe, Mrs. E. T., Grinnell.
Howe, S. H., Grinnell.
Howell, M. B., Rockford.
Howland, Mrs. B. F., Cedar Rapids.
Hoxie, H. Ellen, Anamosa.
Hoyt, Nellie E., Clinton.
Huffman, Ella, Cedar Falls.
Hunter, Etta, Oasis.
Huntington, Lizzie, Le Claire.
Hutchinson, Mrs A. W., Marion.
Hutchinson, Jas., Decorah.
Hutchinson, P., Carroll.
Illingworth, Annie, Waterloo.
Illingworth, Emma, Waterloo.
Irons, W., Council Bluffs.
Irwin, Walter, Tama.
Isham, C. B., Council Bluffs.
Isreal, J., Cedar Falls.
Jacox, G. B., Malcom.
Jackson, Belle, Dubuque.
Jackson, Mrs. C. S., Muscatine.
Jackson, Etta, Epworth.
Jackson, F. F., Dubuque.
Jackwitz, J., Decorah.
James, Lucy, Clinton.
Jameson, A. J., Central City.
Jenkins, Mabel, Manchester.
Jennings, A. C., Des Moines.
Jess, Anna, Dubuque.
Jessen, Emma, Manchester.
Joemdt, May F., Le Mars.
Johnson, A. M., Wakefield.
Johnson, J. A., Munterville.
Johnson, Sarah M., Burlington.
Johnson, W. H., Wilton.
Jones, D. M., Cedar Rapids.
Jones, Mrs. D. M., Cedar Rapids.
Jones, R. D., Grinnell.
Jordan, W. B., Atlantic.
Judd, Lillie, West Liberty.
Judson, C. H., Council Bluffs.
Kalb, Emma, Defiance.
Keller, Chas. L., Dubuque.
Kellogg, Myra, Waukon.
Kelly, Jennie, Decorah.
Kelly, M. J., Parkersburg.
Kelso, Inez F., Harvard.
Kelso, Minnie, Harvard.
Kennedy, Julia, Traer.
Kent, James, Hampton.
Kevan, Maggie M., Dow City.
Kilgrove, Belle, Washington.
Kimball, Mrs. C. H., Iowa City.
Kimball, F. Q., Independence.
King, Alice A., Keokuk
King, M. C., Keosauqua.
King, M. M., Mt. Vernon.
King, O. E., Keokuk.
King, Wm. F., Mt. Vernon.
Kling, H. F., Fayette.
Kling, Mrs. H. F., Fayette.
Knapp, L., Cedar Falls.
Knotts, J. B., Indianola.
Kohler, E. A., Dubuque.
Kraiger, E. F., College Springs.
Kraiger, Sarah C., Nevada.
Kuleman, Agnes, Avoca.
Kurtz, Sallie, Princeton.
Kyle, S. E., Normal Park.
Lacrod, Carrie, Mt. Pleasant.
Lake, L., Sioux Falls.
Lakin, C. M., West Union.
Lane, Emma, Perry.
Langfitt, Addie, Big Rock.
Langley, W. F., St. Ansgar.
Langley, Mrs. W. F., St. Ansgar.
Larmon, Sophie H., Stanton.
Larrabee, Rachel, McGregor.
Larry, M., Council Bluffs.
Lathrop, George R., Des Moines.
Lathrop, Mrs. Geo. R., Des Moines.
Latta, W. C., La Fayette.
Law, L. M., Mt. Vernon.
Lawn, Mary L., Le Mars.
Layne, J. W., Evansville.
Leeper, M., Nashua.

IOWA. *(Continued).*

Leesiner, Katie, Davenport.
Leonard, Mrs., Clinton.
Le Roy, M. E., Mt. Gregor.
Letch, Jennie L., Allerton.
Levi, Gus, Dubuque.
Lewis, Anna B., Muscatine.
Lewis, D. H. W., Washington.
Lewis, Jessie M., Waukon.
Likes, L. H., Sioux City.
Lind, C. A., Sioux City.
Lisler, M. G., Bellevue.
Little, Mary H., Allerton.
Livermore, Ida E., Cedar Rapids.
Lizer, H. B., Winthrop.
Lloyd, Cora, Greencastle.
Lloyd, James H., Charles City.
Lockwood, B. A., Des Moines.
Long, Maggie, Mason City.
Loomis, M. I., Wyoming.
Lopez, Mary, Davenport.
Lord, A. R., Lewis.
Lothrop, G. G., Sioux City.
Loyd, Mrs., Greencastle.
Lucas, Martha, Bedford.
Lucrode, Emma, Mt. Pleasant.
Lyon, J. H., Council Bluffs.
Lyon, M. L., Cedar Rapids.
Lynch, Julia, Pin Oak.
Lynch, Mary, Peoria.
Mac Farlane, A., Iowa City.
Mac Farlane, T., Iowa City.
Madden, Josie, Lyons.
Magness, Franc, Waterloo.
Malloy, Maria, Storm Lake.
Maloney, Margaret, Fairburg.
Marshall, Lizzie, Marion.
Marshall, Wm., Dubuque.
Martin, Amy, Monmouth,
Martin, Calvin, Manchester.
Martin, Mrs. T. S., Sioux City.
Martin, T. T., Sioux City.
Marvin, H. N., Waterloo.
Maskery, Delia, Maquoketa.
Mateer, W. R , Des Moines.
McAlpine, M. M., Denison.
McBride, Anna M., Keokuk.
McBride, J. W., Davenport.
McBride, Mary P., Princeton.
McBride, T. H., Iowa City.
McBride, W. D., Princeton.
McCalmiot, G. C., Newton.
McCandless, A. S., Marshalltown.
McCaru, C., Anamosa.
McCarn, D., Anamosa.
McCarty, Jno., Blairston.
McClain, E., Iowa City.
McClain, Ellen G., Iowa City.
McClain, Rebecca H., Iowa City.
McClay, Ella, Waterloo.
McCleary, Josie, Indianola.
McClellan, J. W., Vinton.
McClelland, Effie, Lisbon.
McCloud, Eva, Bedford.
McConnell, Lulu, Norway.
McCord, Carrie, Hampton.
McCormick, Anna, Atlantic.
McCormick, Kate, Atlantic.
McCortney, N., Davenport.
McCoy, Cina, Muscatine.
McCredie, W. W., De Witt.
McDaniel, Alice, Cedar Rapids.
McDaniel, Elsie, Cedar Rapids.
McHammond, A. H., Charles City.
McIntyre, J. F., Sioux City.
McKee, Anna H., Webster City.
McKell, E. C., Mt. Vernon.
McKenzie, Louis, Hampton.
McKettreck, E. A., Burlington.
McLeod, Ida, Humboldt.
McLeod, John, Humboldt.
McMurray, Hulda, Wilton.
McMurray, J. P., Marble Rock.
McMurray, Mrs. J. P., Marble Rock.
McNaughton, Luella, Wilton Junc.
McRobert, A., Calmar.
McRoberts, Stella M., Toledo.
McVay, Ada L., Cascade.
McVay, B., Cascade.
McVay, Mrs. C. A., Cascade.
McWilliams, Lizzie, Iowa.
McWilliams, Mary, Onawa.
Meade, Jennie, Anamosa.
Means, Jude R., Vinton.
Melvin, R. H., Iowa Falls.
Melville, Mrs. Wm., Alta.
Mercer, G. W., Linton Mills.
Mergler, Ernestine, Davenport.
Merritt, F. D., West Union.
Michael, Mrs., Dubuque.
Middleton, Jennie, Davenport.
Millen, F. V., Council Bluffs.
Miller, B. Y., Eagle Grove.
Miller, Charlotte I., Manchester.
Miller, Geo. I., Boone.
Miller, Mrs. Geo. I., Boone.
Miller, Grace, Des Moines.
Miller, Hattie, Marshalltown.
Miller, Mrs. J. B., Cedar Falls.
Miller, M. B., Stanton.
Miller, R. P., West Liberty.
Miller, Tom. B., Clear Lake.
Mills, Franc, Mt. Pleasant.
Mills, Jno. S., Harlan.
Mills, Lu, Marshalltown.
Miner, G. F., Edwardsville.
Miner, Nettie, Charles City.
Misser Etta M., Toledo.
Mitchell, M. L., Spencer.
Mitchell, W. E., Sidney.
Mittleberschen, E. J., Davenport.
Mittleberschen, R., Davenport.
Mobley, Anna, Lansing.
Mobley, Cornelia, Dubuque.
Mole, Carrie, Maquoketa.
Montgomery, Jennie, Rockford.
Mooney, M. C., Burlington.
Moore, C. E., Grand Junction.
Moore, E. R., Oxford Junction.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Moore, Hattie, Marble Rock.
Moore, Helene, Clinton.
Moore, Lizzie, Quasqueton.
Moorehouse, A., Jefferson.
Moorehouse, Lizzie, Jefferson.
Morgan, Lucy W., Dubuque.
Morgan, M., Davenport.
Morgan, Maggie, Newton.
Mork, Hans, Cedar Falls.
Morley, Grace, Humeston.
Morrison, Rose, Des Moines.
Morse, C. R., Grinnell.
Morton, Amelia, Des Moines.
Mottaz, Mary L., Council Bluffs.
Moughlin, W. J., Onawa.
Mozier, W. F., Iowa City.
Mulford, Alice, Muscatine.
Mullin, Geo. H., Wapello.
Munger, H. A., Cedar Rapids.
Myers, Stella, Defiance.
Near, John H., Sheldon.
Neely, J. H., Norwich.
Neill, W. J., Charles City.
Nelson, Chas., Bedford.
Nelson, J. B., Meriden.
Nelson, Mrs. J. B., Meriden.
Nesbit, S. E., Des Moines.
Nichols, Anna, State Centre.
Nichols, B. C., Iowa Falls.
Nichols, Mary A., State Centre.
Nichols, Susie, Lamoille.
Nicholson, E. S., Mt. Pleasant.
Nisroonger, Jennie, Carroll.
Nitzsche, J. C., Maquoketa.
Noble, Ella W., Chariton.
Noble, P. S., Webster City.
Norris, E. E., Red Oak.
Nott, Lydia W., Marion.
Notte, A. H., Davenport.
Nye, Mrs. R. J., Charles City.
Ollin, R. H., West Liberty.
Olmstead, Aggie, Cherokee.
Olmstead, A. R., Cherokee.
Olmstead, F. W., Council Bluffs.
Olmstead, Mrs. F. W., Council Bluffs.
Olmsted, G. M., Cedar Rapids.
Olmsted, Mrs. G. M., Cedar Rapids.
O'Neal, J. L., Council Bluffs.
O'Neal, Mrs. J. L., Council Bluffs.
O'Neal, Julia, Mt. Carroll.
Oogowell, Nellie P., Burlington.
Oonsley, M., Decorah.
Orr, Agnes E., Clayford.
Orr, W., Onslow.
Osmonde, Margaret, Davenport.
Owen, Charles, Sioux City.
Paddock, Mrs. O. H., Clinton.
Palmer, G. L., Garrison.
Palmer, Jessie, Garrison.
Paranan, Aug., Marshalltown.
Paranan, Mrs. Aug., Marshalltown.
Parker, Abbie, Mason City.
Parker, Carrie, Mason City.
Parker, F. A., Dubuque.
Parnan, J. P., Marshalltown.
Passig, K. S., Sigourney.
Passig, Viola, Sigourney.
Patten, Gertrude, Charles City.
Patten, Lizzie, Marshalltown.
Patten, Simon N., Rhodes.
Patterson, Alice A., Marshalltown.
Patterson, Robt., Vinton.
Penrose, A., Sharon.
Perkins, Abbie A., Forest City.
Perkins, B. H., Doon.
Perley, Mrs. G. P., Cherokee.
Perry, Frank H., Iowa Falls.
Person, Harry, Grinnell.
Peterson, Emma, Davenport.
Peterson, Louise, Davenport.
Peterson, O. R., Osage.
Peterson, Rose, Davenport.
Petric, Olive, Logan.
Phelps, Geo., Decorah.
Phillip, Bessie, Des Moines.
Phillip, Wm., Des Moines.
Phillips, H. S., Oskaloosa.
Phillips, Mattie, Independence.
Phœnix, Anna, Albia.
Pickard, Lulu M., Harlan.
Pickett, J. K., Columbus.
Pickett, Mrs. J. K., Columbus.
Pickett, P. A., Nashua.
Pierce, Alice, Clinton.
Pierce, Cora C., Des Moines.
Pierce, T. R., Grand Junction.
Pierce, W. S., Brandon.
Pinkerton, C. M., De Soto.
Pinkerton, Ella W., McCausland.
Plummer, F. E., Des Moines.
Pooly, Fannie, Earlville.
Powers, Jennie, Waterloo.
Prader, C. M., Monticello.
Preston, W. C., Davenport.
Price, A. B., Des Moines.
Printy, J. A., Imogene.
Proctor, H. C., Des Moines.
Prune, J., Spencer.
Purdy, Flora D., Waukon.
Putnam, Ben., Davenport.
Quick, J. H., Mason City.
Raff, Lida, Davenport.
Ramsdell, Icora, Cedar Rapids.
Ramsdell, Hattie, Cedar Rapids.
Rand, Mary K., Burlington.
Randall, Amelia, Epworth.
Rathburn, G. D., Fayette.
Rathburn, May, Marion.
Rawson, Mrs. E. A., Mt. Auburn.
Ray, Jennie, Strawberry Pt.
Rayburn, Will C., Malcom.
Redfield, Idlewild, Toledo.
Reding, G. M., Newell.
Reding, Minnie, Newell.
Reed, Ida M., Dubuque.
Reed, J. K., Morrison.
Reed, Laura E., Wilton Junction.
Reed, Katie, Newton.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Reedy, W. D., Toledo.
Rees, Geo., Le Mars.
Rees, Louise, Le Mars.
Rhodes, Amy V., Maquoketa.
Rice, Franc M., Nugent.
Richard, L. M., Davenport.
Richardson, Julia, Davenport.
Ridgeway, Anna, Eldora.
Riepe, Wm., Davenport.
Riggs, Anna N., Muscatine.
Riggs, J. F., Mt. Pleasant.
Riggs, Sarah, Nashua.
Robb, May A., Newton.
Robbin, Emma, Ackley.
Roberts, Anna, Burlington.
Roberts, Mary A., Des Moines.
Roberts, S. A., Maquoketa.
Roberts, Mrs. S. B., Osage.
Robins, Nellie, Burlington.
Robinson, W. W., Waverly.
Rochford, E., Camanche.
Rock, G. F., Clinton.
Roe, J., Council Bluffs.
Roe, Ole O., Nevada.
Roebuck, Wm., Cherokee.
Rogers, C. P., Marshalltown.
Rogers, Franc, Marshalltown.
Rogers, W. J., Wheatland.
Rose, E. G., Van Horn.
Ross, Mrs. A. C., Osage.
Ross, H. L., Tama.
Rosser, Sadie A., Peosta.
Rourke, Mary, Farley.
Rubby, Mary A., Dyersville.
Ruckman, R. M., Des Moines.
Rudolph, J. H., Manchester.
Ruggles, J. W., Fayette.
Ruhgaber, Emily, Mt. Pleasant.
Ruhgaber, Lu, Mt. Pleasant.
Runyon, Anna, Indianola.
Runyon, E., What Cheer.
Russell, Viola, Cedar Falls.
Ruth, L. A., Decorah.
Ryan, Emma, Monona.
Ryan, Julia, Monona.
Ryan, M., Stuart.
Ryan, Nannie, Marion.
Ryan, P., Stuart.
Sabin, Henry, Clinton.
Sabin, Mrs. H., Clinton.
Sailor, Louise, Lisbon.
Sale, A. R., Mason City.
Samson, G. W., Belle Plaine.
Sanborn, Nellie, Lyons.
Saunderson, R. G., Burlington.
Savage, C. B., Mason City.
Sawyer, R. S., Creston.
Schellinger, Henry, Davenport.
Schellinger, Mrs. Henry, Davenport.
Schirrah, Meta, Davenport.
Schlabach, Alice, De Witt.
Schreiner, A. C., Dubuque.
Schroeder, Lucy J., Lyons.
Scott, Mrs. E. J., Clinton.
Scott, O. C., Oskaloosa.
Scripture, Delia, Dubuque.
Searles, F. C., Hartley.
Seger, E. A., Manchester.
Seger, Sylvia, Manchester.
Segner, I. F., Burlington.
Segner, Mrs. I. F., Burlington.
Segur, Sarah C., Humboldt.
Seltenseich, A., Cedar Falls.
Sennett, Cora L., Burlington.
Sergeant, S. L., Eldora.
Servey, S., Davenport.
Sessions, F. J., Marion.
Seymore, C. J., New London.
Shaw, Luie M., Green.
Shea, Dan., Decorah.
Sheets, J. M., Nora Springs.
Sheets, Mrs. J. M., Nora Springs.
Shell, Ida L., West Liberty.
Shelton, C. E., De Witt.
Sherrett, Emma, Blair.
Sherrett, Mrs., Blair.
Sheridan, Stella, Dubuque.
Shints, A. W., Albion.
Shipp, C. A., Webster City.
Shipp, J. H., Webster City.
Shirlhilt, Lillian, Marshalltown.
Shoup, W. J., Dubuque.
Simmonson, C., Clear Lake.
Simpson, Emma, Gordon's Ferry.
Simpson, M. M., Grinnell.
Skiff, D. L., Iowa Falls.
Skinner, G. F., Clarence.
Slatt, James, Marshalltown.
Sliter, C. M., West Mitchell
Sliter, Jennie M., West Mitchell.
Slotterbec, Annette, Independence.
Slotterbec, Clara, Independence.
Slotterbec, Fred., Independence.
Slotterbec, May G., Independence.
Slumbaugh, L. J., Lyons.
Slumbaugh, N. May, Lyons.
Smiley, Clara L., Le Mars.
Smith, Mrs. A. O., Fayette.
Smith, Bertha D., Des Moines.
Smith, Bourland D., Epworth.
Smith, Cynthia L., Des Moines.
Smith, Dennis E., Southland.
Smith, Ellen, Tama.
Smith, J. F., Postville.
Smith, J. H., Rock Rapids.
Smith, Mrs. J. H., Rock Rapids.
Smith, Josephine, Des Moines.
Smith, Libbie, Maquoketa.
Smith, L. G., Newton.
Smith, Lois, Clinton.
Smith, Mattie A., Mt. Vernon.
Smith, W. G., Marshalltown.
Snow, P., Freeport.
Soper, T. K., Ames.
Spaulding, Lizzie, Waukon.
Spencer, Adie, Albia.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

Spencer, Flora E., Waukon.
Sperbeck, Flora H., Norway.
Spotts, S. V., Nora Springs.
Spriggs, A. R., Charles City.
Springer, Mrs. Col., Anamosa.
Squire, Clara, Ottumwa.
Squire, Mrs. M., Ottumwa.
Squires, Ida E., Jefferson.
St. John, Ida, Indianola.
Stanger, A. O , Hopkinton.
Steadley, J. F., Davenport.
Stechter, Minnie, Washington.
Stedman, C. D., Vinton.
Steer, Anna, Council Bluffs.
Steffy, J. F., Davenport.
Stemer, W. H., Des Moines.
Stevens, Belle, Knoxville.
Stevenson, Hattie, Red Oak.
Stevenson, Lizzie, Red Oak.
Stewart, L. W., Sioux City.
Stewart, May, Sioux City.
Stewart, Mrs., Sioux City.
Stiles, Ettie H., Washington.
Stilwell, C. J., Council Bluffs.
Stockig, L. A., Waverly.
Stockman, Franc, Richland.
Stockwell, Mrs. F. J., Alta.
Stower, J L., Iowa Falls.
Straight, H. J., Council Bluffs.
Stratton, F. E., Davenport.
Strayer, Mrs. F. F., Cedar Falls.
Stuart, A. W., Ottumwa.
Stuart, H. M., Albion.
Stuart, Mrs. M. R., Marcus.
Stuck, E., Sigourney.
Stuck, Jennie, Sigourney.
Stueland, T. A., Nevada.
Stumbaugh, L J., Lyons.
Sudenderf, E., Hamburg.
Suffield, J. F., Council Bluffs.
Supler, Fannie, Des Moines.
Sutherland, Emma, Maquoketa.
Sutton, P. M., Marshalltown.
Swan, Mrs. C. E., Sioux City.
Swan, Laura B., Fairfield.
Swan, Elma, Fairfield.
Sweet, Libby P., Gilman.
Swift, Mrs. Frank, Charles City.
Swift, Willis, Charles City.
Tanner, Mary A., Ackley.
Tattersale, Ida, Dyersville.
Tattersale, Sarah, Dyersville,
Taylor, Annie, Waverly.
Taylor, C. F., Des Moines.
Taylor, Frank V., Charles City.
Taylor, W. E., Indianola.
Teele, Jennie N., Davenport.
Tennent, Louisa, Webster City.
Terrell, A. A., Cherokee.
Thackery, Sadie, Sioux City.
Thackery, Wm., Sioux City.
Thackery, Mrs. Wm., Sioux City.
Thomas, Annie C., Wilton Junction.
Thompson, Belle S., Davenport.
Thompson, Emma, Vinton.
Thompson, Mrs. Hattie, Cedar Falls.
Thompson, Ida J., Waukon.
Thompson, May W., Waterloo.
Tisdale, Grace E., Davenport.
Titus, Cynthia, Cedar Rapids.
Todd, Lottie, Van Wert.
Tompkins, Mary, Maquoketa.
Torrence, Nannie, Sigourney.
Torrey, C. A., Manchester.
Torrey, C. O., Manchester.
Townsend, Sarah H., Cedar Falls.
Townsley, Ella, Brighton.
Townsley, S. S., Knoxville.
Townsley, Mrs. S. S., Knoxville.
Tracy, Mary, Mt. Pleasant.
Tracy, Venia, Mt. Pleasant.
Trask, C. G., Independence.
Treston, Susan, Rockwood.
Trigg, Mabel, Charles City.
Trigg, W. R., Mt. Vernon.
Troeger, L. E., McGregor.
Tucker, E. B., Columbus Junction.
Tucker, Mrs. E. B., Columbus Junc.
Turner, Lydia, Humboldt.
Tuttle, Stella, Webster City.
Tuttle, Margarette E., Wilton Junc.
Tyler, R. D., Sioux City.
Umphrey, M., Dubuque.
Vail, Ann, New Sharon.
Van Arman, Burlington.
Van Arnheim, Burlington.
Van Auken, Julia E., Mason City.
Vandewenter, V. K., Des Moines.
Van Horn, C. R., Vinton.
Van Horn, Mattie L., Vinton.
Van Metre, E. P., Marshalltown.
Vickers, Alva, New Sharon.
Vickers, Retta, New Sharon.
Voris, D. E., Vinton.
Waggoner, Eva, Oskaloosa.
Walker, Nettie, Norway.
Waller, Viola, Charles City.
Wallslager, M. J., Des Moines.
Walraven, Florence F., Wheatland.
Walsh, J. M., Dubuque.
Warner, Carrie L., Clarinda.
Warrick, Carrie I., Davenport.
Watkins, Emma, Iowa City.
Watkins, M. H., Iowa City.
Waterbury, Lizzie, Charles City.
Weaver, A. A., Iowa Falls.
Wegener, Alice, Clinton.
Welcher, M. E., Davenport.
Weller, J. A., Toledo.
Welsh, Jas. E., Dubuque.
Welsh, Mrs. Jas. E., Dubuque.
Werres, Lena, Dubuque.
Werres, R. H. E., Dubuque.
Whaite, M. J., Waverly.
Wheeler, A., Council Bluffs.
Wheeler, Mrs G., Creston.

IOWA. (*Continued.*)

White, Mrs. F. L., Dubuque.
White, G. L., Charles City.
White, Mrs. G. L., Charles City.
Whitehead, Belle, Ferguson.
Whitehead, Bessie, Ferguson.
Whittaker, Mary, Dubuque.
Whittie, M., Adair.
Whittie, M., Stuart.
Wilbur, Belle, Maquoketa.
Wilcox, R., Hamburgh.
Wiley, Grace, Sterling.
Wilkes, Florence, Alta.
Will, Fannie, Muscatine.
Williams, E., Marne.
Williams, Ella D., Waterloo.
Williams, Mary, Sigourney.
Williams, Snyder N., Mt. Vernon
Willis, H. J., Clear Lake.
Wilson, A. G., Hopkinton.
Wilson, C. E., Cedar Falls.
Wilson, C. E., Greenfield.
Wilson, Mrs. L. M., Des Moines.
Wilson, V. C., Cedar Rapids.
Winard, N. E., Hopkinton.
Wirick, C. M., Bertram.
Wiswall, E. A., Northwood.
Wittie, Agnes, Spring Brook.
Witter, F. M., Muscatine.
Witter, Rebecca, Muscatine.
Wolfe, Mary, Des Moines.
Wood, Mrs. E. D., Eldora.
Wood, Geo. E., Anamosa.
Wood, Gracie, Traer.
Wood, H. L., Le Mars.
Woodbrige, Lou, Haswick.
Woodruff, Geo. W., Brighton.
Woods, M. P., Marengo.
Woodward, Rose, Marietta.
Worcester, Jessie, Albion.
Wright, A. C., Des Moines.
Wright, D. S , Cedar Falls.
Wright, Mrs. D. S., Cedar Falls.
Wright, Emma M., Clinton.
Wright, F. R., Morning Sun.
Wright, H. A., Morning Sun.
Wright, J. L., Des Moines.
Wylie, Jennie, Maquoketa.
Yocum, J. C., Charles City.
Yocum, Mrs. J. C., Charles City.
Young, Amy, Epworth.
Young, Earle, Sioux City.
Young, Mrs. F. M., Independence.
Young, Mrs. Geo., Sioux City.
Young, Irene O., Waterloo.
Young, J. B., Davenport.
Young, Mrs. J. B., Davenport.
Young, Julia, Lyons.
Young, Kittie, Sioux City.
Young, L. B., Independence.
Young, Mabel, Burlington.
Young, R. S., Waterloo.
Young, Sadie, Burlington.
Young, Sue, Leon.

KANSAS.

Acker, Wm., Waterville.
Ackley, Maggie. Wichita.
Adams, J. W., Topeka.
Adams, O., Hutchinson.
Alford, D. F., Lawrence.
Algood, Fred., Lawrence.
Algood, J. A., Lawrence.
Allaire, Mrs. L., Humbolt.
Allen, A. W., Ottawa.
Allmon, N. F., Caldwell.
Allyn, Robert, Carbondale.
Amidon, S. B., Wichita.
Appleman, Ada, El Dorado.
Appleman, Libbie, El Dorado.
Aportre, Chas., Salina.
Armstrong, C. F., Clyde.
Arnolets, E. B., Wichita.
Arnstein, H., Augusta.
Atwood, M. S., Beloit.
Augustine, Nora, Seneca.
Austin, Harry, Topeka.
Avery, D. S., Emporia.
Bacon, Easton, Topeka.
Bacon, Ernest, Topeka.
Bacon, Horace, Wichita.
Bacon, Maggie S., Topeka.
Badensholtz, Thos., Russell.
Bailey, Mrs. M. A., Emporia.
Bailey, Mrs. V. T., Lawrence.
Baker, Mrs. E. L., Topeka.
Baker, E. P., Topeka.
Baker, Gertie, Topeka.
Baker, O. H., Topeka.
Balding, R. H., Paola.
Baldwin, E. B., Oswego.
Baldwin, Mrs. H., Topeka.
Baragar, H., Greenleaf.
Barnes, Mrs. C. L., Junction.
Barnes, N. E., Vineland.
Barnes, Mrs. N. E., Vineland.
Bartlett, Jas., Topeka.
Bartlett, H. N., El Dorado.
Bassier, Frank, Concordia.
Bates, C., Minneapolis.
Bates, Ida, Marysville.
Battesson, H., Marysville.
Batty, Gertrude, Lawrence.
Baty, Agnes J., Bartlett.
Baxter, Alzida, White City.
Baxter, Charles, White City.
Beach, Ada, Valley Centre.
Beach, Mrs. Dwight, Valley Centre.
Bean, B., Hutchinson.
Bean, Emma, Hutchinson.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Beardsley, L. S., Wichita.
Beatty, W. S., Clay Centre.
Belanger, E. D., Palmer.
Bennett, Mrs. Chas., Topeka.
Bennett, H. M., Wellsville.
Berry, A. E., Abilene.
Berry, J., Salina.
Berry, S. L., Newton.
Bernandie, Josephine, Ft. Scott.
Bidwell, Grace, Wichita.
Bingham, Mrs. A. J., Abilene.
Bishop, Mrs. A. B., Emporia.
Bishop, Mary J., Salina.
Bitting, A. W., Wichita.
Bitz, C. A., Newton.
Blackbourn, B. T., Douglas.
Blackburn, Mary J., Wichita.
Blakely, Josephine, Junction City.
Blaker, A., Pleasanton.
Blaker, E., Pleasanton.
Blakesley, N. T., Topeka.
Blanchan, Mrs. B. P., Atchison.
Blank, Angie, El Dorado.
Blank, C. A., El Dorado.
Bloss, Mrs. H. D., White City.
Bollom, Jno., Topeka.
Bonness, B., Newton.
Bowell, Lou, Chicago.
Bower, E. D., Lincoln.
Bowman, A. H., Wichita.
Bowman, A. M., Wichita,
Braimon, Ella S., Burlington.
Brainerd, Bertha, Osage Mission.
Briggs, Henry, Eureka.
Briggs, John T., Oneida.
Briggham, Mrs. C. P., Topeka.
Brigham, R. P., Topeka.
Britton, Edwin, Piedmont.
Brodie, R. G., Emporia.
Brooks, Mrs. Paul R., Lawrence.
Brosor, L. A., Cedarville.
Brotton, Charles, Salina.
Brotton, Maggie, Salina.
Brown, Carrie, Frankfort.
Brown, Mrs. C. M., Manhattan.
Brown, E. May, Ottawa.
Brown, Ellen M., Topeka.
Brown, F., Topeka.
Brown, Mary, Great Bend.
Browne, Mrs. N. S., Ottawa.
Buchanan, W. C., Minneapolis.
Buchi, J., Salina.
Buchi, Mrs. J., Salina.
Buching, B., Wichita.
Buckland, A. J., Great Bend.
Bucknor, W. T., Wichita.
Bullen, B. T., Belleville.
Brimstead, E. F., Clay Centre.
Burbeny, Eva, Seneca.
Burdrick, I. D., Carbondale.
Burdrick, W. R., Topeka.
Burger, Minnie, Seneca.
Burnett, J. C., Topeka.
Burns, W. G., Topeka.
Bushels, W. H., Antrim.
Button, Mrs. C., Topeka.
Button, Mrs. Fred., El Dorado.
Cady, Dora, Concordia.
Cady, Frank, Concordia.
Caldwell, Mrs. J. E., Emporia.
Calhoun, Leon, Mt. Pleasant.
Callahan, A. W., Topeka.
Callahan, E., Wichita.
Callin, C. E., Junction City.
Callin, Ella E., Junction City.
Callin, Kate A., Junction City.
Calvert, C. T., Atchinson.
Campbell, Elizabeth, Larned.
Campbell, J. E., Wichita.
Campbell, Mrs. J. T., Wichita.
Canfield, James H., Lawrence.
Cantwell, Jennie, Topeka.
Cantwell, Martha, Topeka.
Cargill, J. H., Wyandotte.
Cargill, Mrs. J. H., Wyandotte.
Carleton, S. D., Verdi.
Carraway, Gussie, Great Bend.
Carver, Linda, Wichita.
Charbonon, J., Clyde.
Charbonon, T., Clyde.
Chase, G. M., Topeka.
Chasson, B. G., Cawker City.
Chidester, Mrs. Anna, Wichita.
Chidester, M., Wichita.
Child, W. S., Topeka.
Christ, J. C., Peabody.
Clinstenser, Annie, Topeka.
Churchill, Mrs. S. J., Lawrence.
Cochrane, F. J., Baker.
Cochrane, H. L., Eureka.
Coffins, M. S., Cedar Vale.
Cole, H. G., Minneapolis.
Coliday, Frank, Hutchinson.
Colman, Mrs. W. B., Minneapolis.
Combs, E. W., Leavenworth.
Compton, James M., Minneapolis.
Compton, M. E., Grenola.
Conklin, Mrs. E. H., Ft. Scott.
Conley, Delia L., Topeka.
Connell, D. E., Atchison.
Conway, T. W., Independence.
Cook, Jonas, Harper.
Cook, Mrs. Kate S., Concordia.
Cook, Ort, Wichita.
Cook, O. S., Russell.
Cook, S. C., Topeka.
Coolbroth, L. H., Manhattan.
Cordon, R., Whiting.
Corlisle, Mrs. D. T., Baker.
Cottister, Jno., Minneapolis.
Covert, O. F., Burlingame.
Cowles, Chas., McPherson.
Clark, C. M., Peabody.
Clark, Geo., Wichita.
Clark, Mrs. Geo., Wichita.
Cleland, M. B., Topeka.
Clifford, H. A., Wicheta.
Cline, Harry M., Topeka.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Cline, Mrs. H. M., Topeka.
Cline, W. N., Topeka.
Crandall, Birdie, Topeka.
Crandall, Grace, Topeka.
Crandall, Mrs. L. H., Topeka.
Crow, Jno. W., Hutchinson.
Currier, Mrs. John, Girard.
Curtis, Eva E., Ft Scott.
Cutler, B. M., Derby.
Cuyer, Alice, Clide.
Dassler, C. F. W., Leavenworth.
Dassler, Mrs. C. F. W., Leavenworth.
Davidson, Mrs. J. O., Wichita.
Davis, George W., Valley Centre.
Davis, John W., Greensburg.
Davis, Willie, Valley Centre.
Day, S. L , Ft. Scott.
Dean, H. L., Newton.
Decker, Mrs. J. D., Wellington.
Delaney, Lillie, Waterville.
Demers, E. L., Concordia.
Denham, Mrs. Addie, Topeka.
DeBolt, Etta, Winfield.
Densmore, J. W., Clifton.
Deroy, A. L., Wichita.
Derst, J. C., Wichita.
Derst, Kate, Wichita.
Deway, W. H., Wichita.
Dewall, Richard, Wichita.
Dickinson, Eda A., Meridan.
Dickinson, Mrs. A. E., Meridan.
Dickinson, Lizzie, Wichita.
Dickinson, N., Wyandotte.
Dinsmore, F. H., Jr., Emporia.
Dixin, Minnie, Wichita.
Doane, A., Topeka.
Doddridge, H. G., Lyons.
Dodge, A. E., Wichita.
Dougherty, Bertha, Wichita.
Dow, H. P., Manhattan.
Dowen, K. L., Eureka.
Drake, Emma F., Eureka.
Drake, L. M., Topeka.
Drake, Mrs. L. M., Topeka.
Drummond, Clara, Lawrence.
Duff, Fannie L., Barter Springs.
Dulois, J. A., Anthony.
Dunlap, Mrs. L. W., Topeka.
Dunn, Frank W., Ravenna.
Dunn, Louis, Minneapolis.
Dunn, Mrs. L. J., Minneapolis.
Dunn, W. N., Minneapolis.
Easterbrook, C. H., Galena.
Ebersold, S. B., Independence.
Ebersold, S. O., Independence.
Edwards, A. H., Wichita.
Ellis, Mrs. E., Belvit.
Ellis, Edgar C., Belvit.
Emery, N. H., Wichita.
Ericson, J. A., Salina.
Estey, S. S., Wichita.
Evans, Amos, Sabetha.
Evans, Maggie, Emporia.
Ewing, W. O., Topeka.
Ewing, Mrs. W. O., Topeka.
Eyck, J. A. P. Len, Topeka.
Fellows, Franc, Lawrence.
Fellows, Mrs. F. W , Lawrence.
Ferguson, J. R., Ottawa.
Field, C. J., Topeka.
Fieldcamp, Heika, Great Bend.
Fieldcamp, Mrs. Heika, Great Bend.
Finfrock, P. A., Wilmot.
Finley, A. W., Farmersburg.
Fisher, Jennie, Wetmore.
Fitzpatrick, Frank, Leavenworth.
Fitzpatrick, J. P., Wichita.
Fitzpatrick, Mrs. Marg , Leavenworth.
Fitzpatrick, Olive, Atchison.
Flanders, Joseph, Horton.
Foster, F. H., Wichita.
Foster, G., Independence.
Fowler, E. T., Paolo.
Fowler, Leon M., Garden City.
Frampton, Mrs. R., Topeka.
Franklin, J. H., Russell.
Freed, J. K., Reserve.
Frier, Mrs. Amelia, Russell.
Frier, Julia C., Russell.
Gallagher, R. C., Wichita.
Gay, Mary, Clay Center.
Geleno, Mrs. Wm., Wellington.
Gempel, W., Leavenworth.
George, Mrs. S. L. B., Clay Center.
Gilbert, Mrs. A. B., Newton.
Gilbert, A. E., El Dorado.
Gilbert, Minnie, Newton.
Gilman, E. C., El Dorado.
Glick, Fred. H., Atchison.
Goveline, F., Clyde.
Godshalk, Theo., Lions
Goez, Davie, Halstead.
Goggins, Anna M , Anthony.
Goldberg, E., Wichita.
Gamon, Nettie, Wichita.
Gamson, A. E., Wichita.
Good, P. N., Hartford.
Goodwin, W. R., Antrim.
Goodyear, Ina, Wichita.
Goss, W. S., Topeka.
Graham, Fred. E., Sabetha.
Grant, Mabel, Emporia.
Greening, L. F., Wichita.
Greisa, E. M., Lawrence.
Griswold, A., Topeka.
Griswold, D. E., Topeka.
Growdon, S. B., Anthony.
Guild, J. E., Silver Lake.
Guild, Mrs. J. E., Silver Lake.
Guthrie, J. L , White City.
Guthrie, R. E., Jr., Wichita.
Guy, C. E., Oberlin.
Hackshaw, M. E., Winfield.
Haggard, Neil, Salina.
Hahn, M., Greenfield.
Haines, Mrs. H. C., Sabetha.
Hair, Jas. E., Baldwin City.
Hale, E. M., Topeka.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Hall, N. M., Topeka.
Hallock, E. L., Ft. Scott.
Halls, P. T., Clay Center.
Hamill, R. M., Newton.
Hamlin, Mrs. A. L., Ottawa.
Hamlin, Fred. B., Ottawa.
Hamlin, Nettie B., Ottawa.
Hammers, W. O., Anthony.
Handelp, St. Benedicts.
Handford, Julia M., Salina.
Hannon, D. B., Concordia.
Hanscome, Fannie, Wichita.
Hanscome, M., Wichita.
Hanscome, W. B., Wichita.
Hanson, Carrie, Topeka.
Hardesty, Mrs., Wetmore.
Hargis, T. M., Lawrence.
Harman, H. L., White City.
Harney, Matilda, Eureka.
Harper, J. C., Manhattan.
Harper, W. B., Concordia.
Harsh, J., Wichita.
Hartley, J. W., Wichita.
Hastings, J. M., Kansas City.
Hawk, Anna, Hollenburg.
Hawk, Lillie, Hollenburg.
Hawks, S. N., Topeka.
Hawley, E. A., El Dorado.
Hawley, Geo. P., El Dorado.
Hawley, S. A., El Dorado.
Hawthorne, E. M., Newport.
Hayes, Alma, Paola.
Hayes, Mrs. S. B., Argentine.
Haynes, Mrs. C., Ft. Scott.
Haynes, Kate, Ft. Scott.
Heath, A. B., Fredonia.
Heeling, J. N., Emporia.
Heilig, James C., Wakeeney.
Heimman, H., Clyde.
Heller, Mary H., Topeka.
Henry, J. E., Ottawa.
Henson, Nat., Clay Centre.
Herrick, Cordelia, Wellington.
Herrick, J. T., Wellington.
Herrick, Lida, Wellington.
Hershey, Frank, Emporia.
Hess, Geo. W., Humboldt.
Hewett, R. W., Abilene.
Heywood, H. J., Wichita.
Hibben, J. B., Topeka.
Higbee, Mrs. D. W., Syracuse.
Higgins, Geo., Topeka.
Hill, Mrs. E. C., Neodesha.
Hill, Mrs. H. J., Ft. Scott.
Hill, Irving, Neodesha.
Hill, J. H., Emporia.
Hill, W. G., Eudora.
Hilian, G. H., Salina.
Hinsdale, N. D., El Dorado.
Hively, H. C., Chetopa.
Hoadley, Mrs. C., Topeka.
Hobart, F. O., Florence.
Hodges, F., Louisburgh.
Hoffmaster, H., Wichita.
Hokan, K., Atchison.
Holcomb, Lizzie, Topeka.
Holden, J. V., Concordia.
Holderman, Maggie, Emporia.
Holinquist, M., Salina.
Hollenbach, Philip, Louisville.
Hollister, V. O., Hutchinson.
Hollister, Mrs. V. O., Hutchinson.
Holmes, Frank, Medicine Lodge.
Holmes, W. C., Parsons.
Holthans, K., Atchison.
Hopps, Isaac, Wellington.
Horn, C. A., Topeka.
Horn, R., Topeka.
Horner, S., Hutchinson.
Horton, E. E., Topeka.
Hoskeins, Wm. H., Concordia.
Houston, M. L., Concordia.
Howard, J. M., Topeka.
Howards, Mrs. J. M., Topeka.
Howe, Ellen M., Lawrence.
Howe, Ira C., Topeka.
Howe, Mrs. Ira C., Topeka.
Howe, S. W., Florence.
Howe, Samuel T., Topeka.
Howell, A. M., Florence.
Hoyet, Mrs. L. R., Chapman.
Hudson, B., Ft. Scott.
Hume, John, Lawrence.
Hungate, Chas. L., Wichita.
Hungerford, I. M., Manhattan.
Hunt, Alice E., Cottonwood Falls.
Hunter, Cora, Topeka.
Hunter, Mrs. H. A., Topeka.
Hurley, Geo., Topeka.
Hutchinson, J. M., Salina.
Israel, E. W., Wichita.
Israel, Elizabeth, Wichita.
Israel, May Belle, Wichita.
Ingham, E. T., Columbus.
Inglis, Sam'l, Carbondale.
Jack, J. A., Baxter Springs.
Jacoby, D. W., Abilene.
Jencks, J. D., Topeka.
Jenkins, Fillmore, Kingman.
Jenkins, Mrs. Fillmore, Kingman.
Jetty, Norris, Wichita.
Jocelyn, L. D., Wichita.
Jocelyn, Mrs. L. D., Wichita.
Johnson, A. W., Salemsburg.
Johnson, H. M., Leavenworth.
Johnson, J. A., Newton.
Johnson, Robt., Lincoln.
Johnson, W. L., Atchison.
Jones, E. M., Topeka.
Jones, G. M., Stockton.
Jones, G. W., Topeka.
Jones, Lee, Topeka.
Jones, Mrs. Lee, Topeka.
Jordan, E. P., Topeka.
Jordan, Mary H., Paola.
Kader, Joseph, Emporia.
Kader, Margaret, Emporia.
Kale, Ella, N. Topeka.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Kale, W. S., N. Topeka.
Kedzie, Mrs. Nellie S., Manhattan.
Keene, Lillie M., Exeter.
Kegle, Peter, Clyde.
Kegle, Scholastique, Clyde.
Kellogg, J., Leavenworth.
Kellogg, L. M., Leavenworth.
Kent, Mrs. A. M., Topeka.
Kent, Orson, Burlington.
Kent, Mrs. Orson, Burlington.
Kent, Geo. R., Topeka.
Kermeen, Mrs. A. E., Seneca.
Keyes, Mrs. James, Atchison.
Keyes, Maggie, Oberlin.
Kimmel, Mrs. Sarah, Sabetha.
King, A. J., Atchison.
King, J. K., Clyde.
King, Jno., Minneapolis.
Kinney, W. H., White City.
Kinney, Mrs. W. H., White City.
Kingsley, Geo., Paola.
Kirby, Barton, Sterling.
Kirk, S. D., Strong City.
Kistler, L. C., Topeka.
Korn, Alice, Abilene.
Korn, David, Abilene.
Korn, Jacob, Abilene.
Korn, May, Abilene.
Koroojd, Mrs. Ed. A., Topeka.
Krider, J. H., Oberlin.
Krider, Mrs. J. H., Oberlin.
Lacy, W. E., Atchison.
Lakin, Burr, Topeka.
Lambert, J., Concordia.
Lane, J. L., Atchison.
Lane, Lizzie, Wichita.
Lane, Wm., Horton.
Larimer, H. G., Topeka.
Larimer, Sarah J., Topeka.
Lathrope, M., Miltonvale.
Lawrence, C. M., Topeka.
Lawrence, Jas. A., Hiawatha.
Lawrence, Rose, Jamestown.
Layman, Mrs. W. P., Wichita.
Lee, S. W., Wichita.
Lee, M. I., Topeka.
Lee, Mrs. M. I., Topeka.
Lefebere, N., Clyde.
Leny, Gus, Palmer.
Lesh, J. F., Seneca.
Lesh, Mrs. M., Seneca.
Lewis, Joe M., Wichita.
Lewis, Jessie, Lindsborg.
Limmer, G. W., Wichita.
Little, Fred. W., Wichita.
Little, Wm. C., Wichita.
Littlefield, Ellen E., Ottawa.
Littlefield, Frank, Ottawa.
Lively, L. J., Beloit.
Locker, E. C., Atchison.
Locker, J. J., Atchison.
Lockwood, G. H., Wichita.
Loomis, Mrs., Bay Centre.
Long, M. L. H., Detroit.
Lowers, P. F., Wichita.
Lucaud, Julia, Leavenworth.
Luft, Amy, Topeka.
Luft, Edmund, Topeka.
Luke, Mrs. Rosena, Eskridge.
Lull, Anna S., Topeka.
Lull, E. B., Topeka.
Lyon, A. B., Topeka.
Lyon, Thos. S., Topeka.
Lynn, C. W., Salina.
Lynn, Laura, Salina.
MacMahon, M. E., Emporia.
McAdams, C. E., Wichita.
McAllester, Geo. W., Topeka.
McAllister, Mrs. L. L., Topeka.
McCarthy, H. D., Highland.
McClees, N., Wichita.
McClees, Philina, Wichita.
McClure, D. E., Minneapolis.
McClintock, Edna, Topeka.
McClintock, L. B., Topeka.
McClintock, M. E., Topeka.
McClintock, Nellie, Topeka.
McCollister, Mrs., Topeka.
McDonald, Jno., Topeka.
McDonald, Margaret, Topeka.
McDonald, N., Ft. Scott.
McDonald, Wm., Lawrence.
McGuire, A. C., Topeka.
McIntyre, F. E., Clyde.
McKee, M., Leavenworth.
McKinney, P. E., Cherry Vale.
McNaughton, Clara, Clay Center.
McPherson, M., Gardner.
McPherson, W., Gardner.
Mahan, John H., Abilene.
Mahan, Margaret C., Abilene.
Main, E. E., Jamestown.
March, E., Nindom.
Martin, Alice H., Hanover.
March, A. J., Fort Scott.
Martin, Benjamin, Concordia.
Martin, Dollie, Topeka.
Martin, Ella, Topeka.
Martin, Eugenie, Topeka.
Martin, Henry, Topeka.
Martin, H. G., Concordia.
Martin, Kate, Wichita.
Mason, J. P., Ottawa.
Mason, Mrs. J. P., Ottawa.
Mason, T. S., Topeka.
Mason, Mrs. T. S., Topeka.
Maurer, R. L., Wichita.
Maxwell, Wyman, Wichita
Meck, S. R., Holton.
Meekin, H. J. W.
Melburg, John H., Hutchinson.
Meloy, Edward, Lawrence.
Melsker, D. C., Topeka.
Mercer, Mrs. M. J., Topeka.
Merrill, Mrs. E. G., Anthony.
Merrill, Hannah, Anthony.
Merrill, A. S., Kansas City.
Merrill, Mrs. M., Kansas City.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Merry, E. E., Pittsburgh.
Metberg, Mary K., Hutchinson.
Meyer, Albert, Ellenwood.
Michaud, E., Clyde.
Miles, D. C., Russell.
Miller, A. B., Garden City.
Miller, Chas. F., Ft. Scott.
Miller, Clara L., Wyandotte.
Miller, Edna, Garden City.
Miller, Mrs. E. T., Lawrence.
Miller, Geo. H., Wyandotte.
Miller, Mrs. G. H., Wyandotte.
Miller, Jno., Wichita.
Miller, Jno. F., Topeka.
Miller, Mrs. M., Wichita.
Miller, Mrs. S. C., Concordia.
Miller, Mrs. S. E., Garden City.
Mills, C. W., Minneapolis.
Mills, Frank, Topeka.
Mills, Kittie, Topeka.
Mills, L. H., Wichita.
Mills, Mrs. M. A., Wichita.
Miner, L. W., Wichita.
Miner, W. D., Burlingame.
Mitchell, D. E., Emporia.
Mitchell, Harry L., Beverly.
Mitchell, Mrs. S. L., Winfield.
Mitchner, Mrs. C. N., Winfield.
Moore, A. M., Girard.
Moore, H. E., Wichita.
Moore, Jno. H., Bellevue.
Montgomery, A. R., Atchison.
Morelynd, Mrs. Jennie, Wichita.
Morgan, W. O., Wichita.
Morley, B. P., Clyde.
Morley, Mrs. B. P., Clyde.
Morris, A. E., Clyde.
Mosbacher, Chas., Wichita.
Mosbacher, Maud J., Wichita.
Mower, M. E., Wichita.
Mulligan, Mrs D., Topeka.
Munson, W. A., Mound City.
Murray, A. S., Wichita.
Murray, Jake E., Waverly.
Muzzey, R. H., Cherry Vale.
Muzzy, Anna, Wichita.
Muzzy, J. S., Wichita.
Naylor, J. M., Wichita.
Naylor, Mattie, Wichita.
Nelson, Andrew.
Nelson, Chas. N., Topeka.
Neally, Mrs. A., Topeka.
Newber, Minnie, Junction City.
Nichols, Mrs. E. L., Lawrence.
Nichols, Loyd, Topeka.
Nickerson, Mrs. A., Saratoga.
Norton, F. M., Carbondale.
Norton, Mrs. F. M., Carbondale.
Norton, G. A., Junction City.
Nook, Gardner, Wichita.
Nook, Ada, Wichita.
Nostzyger, Leille, Anthony.
Nowlen, E. B.
Noyell, Etta L., El Dorado.
Oakey, Maria, Leavenworth.
Obelee, M., El Dorado.
Ocks, L., Wyandotte.
Olmstead, Mrs. W. H., Syracuse.
Olson, Chas., Cullison.
Olson, H. M., Topeka.
Osborne, J. H., Elk Fall.
Owen, A. H., Salina.
Owen, Mrs. H. H., Salina.
Page, I. F., Emporia.
Palmer, A. L., Lawrence.
Palmer, M. L., Valley Centre.
Palmer, N. L., Valley Centre.
Pam, Paul, Kansas City.
Paradis, Mrs. J., Concordia.
Paradis, Ruby, Concordia.
Paramore, J. W., Topeka.
Paramore, S. A., Topeka.
Parent, E. J., Abilene.
Parent Minnie E., Abilene.
Parier, Joseph, Concordia.
Park, Amy, Larned.
Park, W. S., Larned.
Parker, J. E., Lawrence.
Parker, S. J., Ft. Scott.
Parker, W. F., Topeka.
Parmelee, K. W., Leavenworth.
Parmelee, L. E., Leavenworth.
Parrington, L. M., Emporia.
Patch, A. J., Topeka.
Patman, Carrie E., Wyandotte.
Patrick, Chas., Topeka.
Patterson, Julia, Wichita.
Peacock, S. E., Wichita.
Pearson, C. W., Peabody.
Peck, H. L., Wichita.
Peck, Mrs. H. L, Wichita.
Peck, J. L., Holton.
Peck, Mrs. J. L., Holton.
Peland, D., Clyde.
Peland, Theodore, Clyde.
Peirce, D. L., Wichita.
Peirce, Mrs. D. L., Wichita.
Pence, D. A., Wichita.
Peno, A., Minneapolis.
Penoyer, J. H., Garden City.
Perkins, Nellie, Atchison.
Perry, Mrs. L. J., Paola.
Perry, Temple, Paola.
Peyton, J. Q. A., Topeka.
Philips, B. E., Garden City.
Philips, Mrs. E. M., Clay Centre.
Phillips, Ben, Leavenworth.
Pierce, Henry B., Topeka.
Pierce, Mrs. Henry B., Topeka.
Pipper, N., Manhattan.
Pixley, Josie, Winfield.
Plass, R. C., Girard.
Platt, Mary J., Topeka.
Popenoe, Mrs. C. J., Manhattan.
Popenoe, Edwin A., Manhattan.
Potter, Gertrude, Topeka.
Potter, S. J., Topeka.
Potts, C., Clyde.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Pounds, Mrs. L. H., Topeka.
Powell, Leah, Osage City.
Prasse, M., Topeka.
Prayton, Jeannette, Windom.
Prescott, J. A., Topeka.
Price, Viola B., Emporia.
Prince, E. L., Jamestown.
Pulver, C. A., Hutchinson.
Pulver, C. L., Chapman.
Raines, Alice A., Concordia.
Raines, Esther, Valley Centre.
Ralston, Mrs. W. W., Horton.
Ramsdell, Pearl, Paola.
Rankin, Jas. L., Topeka.
Ready, W. M., Wellington.
Rees, C. M.
Reid, Edith, Neosho Falls.
Reid, Fannie A., Muncie.
Reid, T. L., Neosho Falls.
Reid, Mrs. T. L., Neosho Falls.
Reinhardt, K., Atchison.
Repmeyer, H., Leavenworth.
Rice, A. W., Abilene.
Rice, Annie, Abilene.
Rice, Emily S., Anthony.
Rice, Hattie, Abilene.
Richard, Bertha, Concordia.
Richard, Ella G., Topeka.
Richard, Lillie, Clyde.
Richardson, A. W., Loring.
Richardson, E. W., Loring.
Riggs, Fannie A., Emporia.
Riley, C. E., Topeka.
Rippetor, J. J., Holton.
Roach, L. W. Concordia.
Robb, Mrs. S. E., Galva.
Roberts, J. V., Burr Oak.
Robinson, Jane, Waterville.
Rodgers, Sam, Topeka.
Roehr, W. F., N. Topeka.
Romann, Julius, Eureka.
Rose, George, Wichita.
Rosenburg, A. E., El Dorado.
Rosenburg, J. C., El Dorado.
Ross, Nellie, Holton.
Rossler, Henry L., Wichita.
Rondebush, J. W., Topeka.
Roys, H. S., Wichita.
Roys, R. H., Wichita.
Rubins, Anson, Cofferville.
Sahler, L. H., Atchison.
Sampson, F. L., Concordia.
Saunders, F. A., Kingsley.
Savage, M. B., Lawrence.
Savoy, I. M., Clyde.
Savoy, Louis, Clark.
Sayre, L. E., Lawrence.
Schermerpon, L. R., Emporia.
Schmidt, Julia, Le Roy.
Schofield, J. G., Seneca.
Scott, E. L., Manhattan.
Scoville, D., Seneca.
Seawright, Lucy, Eureka,
Seinons, J. B., Wellington.
Sheafor, J. M., Topeka.
Shepard, W. M., Topeka.
Sherdin, Birdie, Bellevue.
Sherman, Dora, Ft. Scott.
Shinn, A. C., Olathe.
Shirk, D. F., Abilene.
Shoenholtz, Julia, Wayne.
Shull, W. P., Wichita.
Shump, Michael, St. Benedict.
Shump, Mrs. Susana, St. Benedict.
Simmons, D. C., Topeka.
Simmons, O. T., Wichita.
Simon, J. G., Newton.
Slater, Monroe, Minneapolis.
Smith, Blanche, Wichita.
Smith, C. V. N., Topeka.
Smith, E. D., Petersburgh.
Smith, F. L., Ft. Scott.
Smith, G. W., Topeka.
Smith, Hattie, Seneca.
Smith, J. D , Aberden,
Smith, J. H., Cowper City.
Smith, M., Turon.
Smith, P. D., Leonardsville.
Smith, Mrs. P. B., Topeka.
Smith, Ralph, Wichita.
Snow, Isaac B., Topeka.
Snow, Mrs. S. J., Topeka.
Snyder, C. W., Clifton.
Sollett, A. N., Lyons.
Sollett, M. E., Lyons.
Sorrell, Mrs. G. S., Eureka.
Spaltan, G. E., Wichita.
Sparks, H. B., Topeka.
Spaulding, Mrs. B. L., Burlingame.
Spencer, E. M., Ft. Scott.
Spendlave, Anna M., Topeka.
Spendlave, J. J., Topeka.
Sridgle, S. M., Eureka.
Stambaugh, W. G., Wichita.
Stapleton, M. E., Douglas.
Starbird, C. A., Topeka.
Starbird, Mary C., Topeka.
Stawpert, Mrs., Atchison.
Steenburg, W. B., Topeka.
Stevens, C. H., Lawrence.
Stevens, G. H., Anthony.
Stevens, L., Topeka.
Stevens, L. L., Newton.
Stevens, Mrs. L. L., Newton.
Stevens, N. O., Lawrence.
Stevenson, Geo., Waterville.
Stevenson, Lizzie, Emporia.
Stevenson, Maria, Waterville.
Stewart, Francis, Manhattan.
Stewart, Mrs. S. R., Douglas.
Stiles, E. G., Wichita.
Stiles, L. H., Wichita.
Stiles, Mrs. L. H., Wichita.
St. John, J. W., Topeka.
Stockton, Jno. S., Wyandotte.
Stockton, Mrs. J. S., Wyandotte.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Stokes, F. H., Topeka.
Stokes, Mrs. F. H., Topeka.
Strange, F. M., Larned.
Stratton, Albert E., Clay Centre.
Strauss, F., El Dorado.
Streeter, E. M., Arnes.
Streicher, A. E., Ellsworth.
Stretch, Fannie, Winfield.
Stretch, Jessie, Winfield.
Stretch, Jonathan, Winfield.
Strickler, J. N., Topeka.
Strickler, Mary J., Topeka.
Strubbe, Maud, Wichita.
Sutherland, Mrs. E., Saratoga.
Sutton, A. W., Stockton.
Sutton, H. W., Minneapolis.
Sutton, J. T., Wichita.
Swain, M. C., Paola.
Swan, Mrs. E. A., Osage City.
Sweet, C. E., Concordia.
Swisher, N. J., Whiting.
Swisher, Mrs. N. J., Whiting.
Tate, Geo., Wichita.
Tate, J. W. Louisburg.
Taylor, C. E., Florence.
Taylor, Charles, Salina.
Taylor, Dora O., Seneca.
Taylor, Larrain E., Seneca.
Taylor, Wm., Bridgeport.
Tero, J. H., Topeka.
Tesch, Chas., Wichita.
Thompson, E., Wichita.
Thompson, Emily, Topeka.
Thompson, J., Clyde.
Thompson, Julia M., Sabetha.
Thompson, Olive, Waterville.
Thompson, Sarah, Waterville.
Thompson, Thomas, Lincoln Center.
Thorm, L. D., Concordia.
Thoroman, L. O., Salina.
Throop, H. P., Topeka.
Tinker, J. L., Topeka.
Tipton, A. W., Topeka.
Tobin, Jennie, Cawker City.
Todd, M. K., Little River.
Tonesdell, Alice, Wyandotte.
Touse, Laura, Sabetha.
Turner, Bessie B., Humboldt.
Tyrall, S., Strong City.
Van Buskirk, M. S., Topeka.
Van Deman, S. W., Sterling.
Van Hauten, Libbie, Topeka.
Van Hauten, Myra, Topeka.
Van Ostrand, B. D., Marion.
Van De Mark, C. W., Clyde.
Viele, A., Wichita.
Viele, Minnie, Wichita.
Viele, O. H., Wichita.
Vincent, F. T., Medicine Lodge.
Wade, A. B., Valley Falls.
Wadsworth, William, Topeka.
Wadsworth, Willie M., Topeka.
Wagner, W. A., Kansas City.
Waldock, A. J., Arkansas City.
Walker, Josiah, Leavenworth.
Walker, Mrs. J., Leavenworth.
Wallis, C. M., Holton.
Walters, J. D., Manhattan.
Walters, Mrs. J. D., Manhattan.
Warden, Chas. E., Topeka.
Ware, Emma V., Garden City.
Ware, J. H., Lincoln.
Ware, Ralph F., Garden City.
Warn, G. S., Ft. Scott.
Warne, T. P., Carbondale.
Wassen, E. S., Ottawa.
Wasson, B. F., Cottonwood Falls.
Wasson, Mrs. B. F., Cottonwood Falls
Waterson, Mrs. J., Atchison.
Waymire, Emma, Emporia.
Waymire, Mary S., Emporia.
Weaver, A. F., Ft. Scott.
Weber, Gustav, Lawrence.
Weckel, Jno., Clyde.
Welp, F. A., Seneca.
Weyneth, Edith U., Wichita.
Weyneth, W. R., Wichita
Whallon, J. J., Hazleton.
Whallon, W. J., Hazleton.
Wheeler, H. O., Garden City.
Wheeler, S. C., Concordia.
Wherland, Willa H., Emporia.
Whetcher, E. C., Concordia.
Wiard, E. F., Concordia.
Wiener, Mrs. P., Eureka.
Wikedal, Julia, Topeka.
Wikedal, Mrs. S. C., Topeka.
Wilkinson, J, N., Emporia
Wilkinson, Mrs. J. N., Emporia.
Williams, Annie R.. Valley Centre.
Williams, A. S., Ashland.
Williams, C. R., Salina.
Williams, Chas., Emporia.
Williams, Chas. S., Ashland.
Williams, J. E., Valley Centre.
Williams, P. H., Topeka.
Williams, R. A., Ashland.
Williams, R. D., Wyandotte.
Williams, W. D., Ashland.
Williamson, J. E., Topeka.
Williamson, Mrs. J. N., Topeka.
Wilms, Fred., Syracuse.
Wilson, L. C., Wichita.
Wilson, Salina, Lawrence.
Winch, I. G., Wichita.
Winch, Mrs. I. J., Wichita.
Wing, W. B., Salina.
Wing, J. H., Council Grove.
Wimck, T. J., Leavenworth.
Winter, Mrs. S., Eureka.
Winterbottom, Abbie, Waterville.
Wolf, Mrs. W. A., Russell.
Wolf, C. C., Great Bend.
Wolf, Mrs. Ellen, Great Bend.
Wolf, Louis C., Topeka.
Wolf, Winnefred, Topeka.
Wood, Annie S., Garden City.
Wood, Helena, Wellington.

KANSAS. (*Continued.*)

Woodward, F. J., Ottawa.
Wooster, L. C., Eureka.
Work, Ada C., Wichita.
Work, Gardner, Wichita.
Worthy, Mary, Wetmore.
Worthy, Willie, Wetmore.
Wright, Mrs. W. B., Manhattan.
Wright, John S. C., Topeka.
Wright, L. W., Dodge City,
Young, Annie M., Manhattan.
Yount, L. L., Wichita.
Zug, Kate, Sabetha.

KENTUCKY.

Abraham, Fannie, Louisville.
Albrecht, Louise, Louisville.
Allen, Mollie J., Louisville
Baker, Mrs. J. E., Louisville.
Baldwin, A., Louisville.
Barnett, W. W., Louisville.
Bass, E. F., Louisville.
Bent, May E., Lexington.
Borden, Jas., Louisville.
Borden, Martha, Louisville.
Borntraeger, M., Louisville.
Bowden, R. W., Louisville.
Bowman, L., Lexington.
Brackett, C. H., Louisville.
Britting, Minnie, Covington.
Broderson, Ella, Louisville.
Broderson, Mary D., Louisville.
Brunton, Lillie, Louisville.
Burke, Richard, Louisville.
Chaffant, Cornelia, Louisville.
Clark, E. S., Henderson.
Clark, Mrs. E. S., Henderson.
Clark, Jennie, Louisville.
Clayton, Denis, Georgetown.
Clayton, L., Georgetown.
Close, W. H., Louisville.
Couty, Nannie, Louisville.
Cowling, W. D., Louisville.
Crome, Olive E., Louisville.
Cross, W. B., Louisville.
Daeger, Jacob, Louisville.
Drandt, Mrs. J., Louisville.
Dreher, Julius D., Salem.
Durbeck, Marie H., Louisville.
Ehnnan, E. A., Louisville.
Elrood, Mrs. E. G., Louisville.
Ferguson, Thomas, Louisville.
Ferguson, Mrs. Thomas, Louisville.
Fetter, S., Louisville.
Fogarty, Mrs. J., Danville.
Frazier, M. V., Louisville.
French, S. H., La Grange.
Gahlert, H., Louisville.
Gaines, Annie, Louisville.
Gaines, J. T., Louisville.
Gavin, Mrs. J. M., Louisville.
German, Belle M., Louisville.
Goodwin, A. C., Owensborough.
Gree, Sue, Covington.
Green, F. U., Newport.
Grunder, J., Louisville.
Hall, W. C., Covington.
Hamilton, Anna, Louisville.
Harris, J. L., Fulton.
Harrison, C. F., Louisville.
Hartough, J. C., Newport.
Hartough, M. R., Newport.
Hatch, A., Lexington.
Hawthorne, Kate, Newport.
Hervey, W. H., Louisville.
Hillerick, Lena, Louisville.
Hoeppner, W. M., Louisville.
Huline, G. R., Louisville.
Huntoon, B. B., Louisville.
Huntoon, Mrs. B. B., Louisville.
Hurst, F. Y., Louisville.
Jackman, Mollie, Louisville.
Jones, Mary E., Louisville.
Keenan, Annie, Louisville.
Kellar, Linda, Louisville.
Kelcher, D. C., Louisville.
Kohlhepp, E. C., Louisville.
Kohlhepp, Mrs. F., Louisville.
Levi, Ernest, Louisville.
Lord, Fred., Covington.
Magowan, John T., Mt. Sterling.
Mahan, M. E., La Grange.
Magness, A. M., Louisville.
Manahan, Anna, Louisville.
Maury, S. S., Louisville.
McCarthy, Jennie, Louisville.
McCarthy, W. J., Louisville.
McDonald, Annie I., Louisville.
McKenzie, Mrs. H., Louisville.
McLeen, Covington.
McMinigal, Lauretta S., Berea.
Meagher, D. J., Louisville.
Meeham, Ann, Louisville.
Meeham, Mamie, Louisville.
Mitchell, R. M., Dayton.
Montgomery, H. C., Louisville.
Moor, Chas. E., Louisville.
Moor, Mrs. Chas. E., Louisville.
Morath, F. R., Louisville.
Morsell, H. T., Louisville.
Murray, Minnie, Louisville.
Nagle, Mrs., Louisville.
Newhoff, Mrs. J. B., Louisville.
O'Connor, Ella, Louisville.
Page, P. L., Louisville.
Parsons, Marion E., Newport.
Passalaqua, Jno., Louisville.
Peterson, M. J., Louisville.
Porter, Jennie A., Newport.
Queen, Octavia C., Louisville.
Rehkoft, J. C., Louisville.

KENTUCKY. (*Continued.*)

Ricketts, M. L., Louisville.
Ricketts, Mrs. S. A., Louisville.
Riley, Wm. E., Louisville.
Roack, R. N., Glasgow.
Roecker, O. E., Louisville.
Roos, F., Neave.
Rouch, Mrs. C., Louisville.
Rudolph, Jas., Louisville.
Schaulie, Alexina, Louisville.
Scheurer, Mrs. J. W., Louisville.
Schneider, Lou. Louisville.
Schroeder, H. H., Louisville.
Singlton, Katie F., Louisville.
Smith, Daniel, Louisville.
Smith, Jennie L., Newport.
Smith, Maria, Louisville.
Smith, R. M., Louisville.
Solomon, Mrs. Maggie, Hodgensville.
Steinfield, Sarah, Louisville.
Stephens, S., Louisville.
Stewart, Adelia, Louisville.
Stewart, Mrs. Jennie, Louisville.
Sheppard, J. D., Louisville.
Sheppard, Mrs. J. D., Louisville.
Stoy, B. C., Louisville.
Stoy, Mrs. E. J., Louisville.
Struck, Hanna, Louisville.
Stuber, Olla, Louisville.
Stultz, Oscar, Louisville.
Taylor, Alma E., Ludlow.
Thurston, Carrie, Covington.
Tucker, M., Louisville.
Vanatta, S., Shelbyville.
Vanatta, Mrs. S., Shelbyville.
Walkop, F. H., Louisville.
Walsh, Jennie T., Newport.
Walsh, Lizzie B., Louisville.
Walsh, Nelie, Newport.
Watson, Julia, Louisville.
Webb, S. A., Louisville.
Williams, Annie, Normal.
Williams, M., Normal.
Williams, Mrs. N. S., Normal.
Wood, G. K., Newport.
Young, Annie M., Taylorsville.

LOUISIANA.

Bettison, Ulric, New Orleans.
Chambers, H. E., New Orleans.
Chambers, Mrs. H. E., New Orleans.
Easton, Warren, Baton Rouge.
Easton, Mrs. Warren, Baton Rouge.
Fellows, Geo. E., New Orleans.
Lyons, M. E., New Orleans.
Mathews, Mrs. E., Alexandria.
Ordway, J. M., New Orleans.
Ordway, Mrs. J. M., New Orleans.
Sheib, Edward E., Natchitoches.

MAINE.

Annis, B. S., Wells.
Blanchard, A. E., N. Anson.
Brown, Lottie, Clinton.
Burns, Laura, Calais.
Carpenter, F. A., Portland.
Cary, Hattie, Auburn.
Farbox, C. S., Westport.
Fitch, W. L., Portland.
Hansom, J. H., Waterville.
Hansom, Mrs. J. H., Waterville.
Harlow, H. C., Auburn.
Harlow, Lizzie, Auburn.
Howe, Lizzie, Auburn.
Jordan, James A., Brunswick.
Little, May, Lewiston.
Little, Mary A., Lewiston.
Paul, May E., Auburn.
Rideout, May, Auburn.
Savage, Mrs. A. R., Auburn.
Sawyer, H. M., Brunswick.
Simmons, Eliza T., Auburn.
Stetson, R. J., Auburn.
Stetson, W. W., Auburn.
Webber, Mrs. Alice, Clinton.
Welch, Frank H., Brunswick.

MARYLAND.

Allin, Henry, Baltimore.
Beziat, Marian E., Baltimore.
Boone, R. G., Baltimore.
Burgan, Katie S., Baltimore.
Marshall, A., Baltimore.
Marshall, Mrs. M. E., Hagerstown.
Nuverzagt, C. H., Baltimore.
Schafer, Minnie G., Hagerstown.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Abbott, Eliza M., Chelsea.
Adams, M T., Boston.
Adams, Mrs. M. T., Boston.
Adams, Oscar T., Cambridge.
Adams, Warren P., Boston.
Allen, Margaret E., Northborough.
Ames, Azel, Wakefield.
Ames, Chas. H., Boston.
Andrews, Mary F., South Hingham.
Anthony, Mrs. H. J., Rockland.
Atwood, Libbie T., Foxborough.
Bailey, H. E., Lancaster.
Bailey, Thos. T., Boston.
Baily, Henry F., North Scituate.
Baker, Marcellus G., Boston.
Baker, O. M, Springfield.
Baker, Mrs. O. M., Springfield.
Balch, A. L., Cambridge.
Barker, Mrs. Nathan, North Andover.
Bartlett, Geo. H., Boston.
Batchelder, Belle T., Lowell.
Batchelder, Geo. W., Lowell.
Bemis, Mrs. P A., Spencer.
Bennett, Merton R., Springfield.
Berry, N. L., Lynn.
Blackinton, J. F., Boston.
Blackinton, Mary D., Boston.
Blake, A. E., Boston.
Bradley, Florence, Springfield.
Bradley, Milton, Springfield
Bradley, Mrs. Milton, Springfield.
Brown, Kate L., Reading.
Brown, Mary A., Boston.
Brown, Mercia, Maplewood
Buddington, Mrs. T. M., Greenfield.
Bullard, E. C., Cambridge.
Bullard, Mrs. J. C., Cambridge.
Bunker, Alfred, Boston.
Burgess, Lucy L., Boston.
Butler, Chas. S, Boston.
Cabot, J. W., Mansfield.
Callaghan, Julia F., Lynn.
Callaghan, Minnie A., Lynn.
Carrington, Henry B., Boston.
Carroll, Mary C., Worcester.
Cassil, Mrs. W. H, Boston.
Churchill, Harriet M., Waltham.
Clark, Mrs. Chas., Cambridgeport.
Clark, Geo. A., Somerville.
Clark, John S., Boston.
Clemons, Sarah P., Salem.
Coethell, Clara, Whitman.
Colbaths, D. W., Boston.
Cortes, Jennie, Boston.
Crafts, Hattie L., Waltham.
Curtis, Annie N., Boston.
Curtis, C. W., Boston.
Curtis, Ida M., Boston.
Curtis, R. F., Boston.
Cushing, Ella F., E. Hollister.
Cushing, Fannie O., Austin.
Cushing, N I., Boston.
Cutler, Sanford L, Groton.
Day, Annie P., Bradford.
Davis, Olive A., Chelsea.
Davis, T. D., Boston.
DeLoriea, Isabella, Woburn.
DeLoriea, W. J., Woburn.
Dempsey, Katie, Milford.
Dewart, F. H., Cambridge.
Dickinson, Jno. W., Boston.
Dimond, L. A., Somerville.
Dodge, A. L., Hyde Park.
Dodge, L. A., Boston.
Donohoe, A. M., Lynn.
Donohoe, N. T., Lynn.
Doy, Francis A., Boston.
Drake, Clara, Brockton.
Dumis, Mrs. A. M., Boston.
Edwards, Anna C., Mount Holyoke.
Elworado, J. A., Boston.
Emerton, Clara, Cambridge.
Fay, L. E., Springfield.
Field, M. Louise, Boston.
Field, Mrs. M. P., Boston.
Fisk, N. W., Springfield.
Flagg, Geo. O., Springfield.
Folsom, L. B., Gardner.
Foster, Mrs. H. S., Medford.
Foster, M. J., Loppsville.
Frazer, D. A., Boston.
Galpin, Barbara M., Somerville.
Gannon, Alex., Boston.
Gately, Agnes, Boston.
George, Carrie A., Worcester.
Glidden, H. H., Salem.
Gove, Mrs. M. E., Weymouth.
Gove, M. L., Weymouth.
Goss, Frank M., Boston.
Graham, Dorethea, Cambridge.
Graves, Mrs. Avalon, West Newton.
Graves, Helen W., Boston.
Graves, Lucy B., Ipswich.
Gunnison, Sarah, Cambridge.
Guy, Mrs. J. K., Fitchburg.
Hardening, Rebecca L., Chatham.
Harriman, Edwin F., Boston.
Harriman, M. E., Boston.
Harris, M. A., Marlborough.
Hart, Georgie S., Peabody.
Hatch, Wm. E., Haverhill.
Hawes, Marion A., Boston.
Hawood, Ella L., Spencer.
Heaney, Mary, Lynn.
Hesseltine, G. R., Melrose.
Hill, Anna E., Springfield.
Hinman, A. H., Worcester.
Holden, Carrie J., Marlborough.
Holt, H. E., Boston.
Howe, Irving C., Boston.
Hubbard, M. W., Boston.
Hutchinson, Jno. W., Lynn.
Kelly, Mary G., Boston.
Kendall, Ida, Dorchester.
Kendall, Jennie, Dorchester.
Kimball, Mary E., Littleton Common.
King, Mrs. H. E., Springfield.
Kingsbury, Geo. O., Springfield.

MASSACHUSETTS. (*Continued.*)

Kinney, B. W., Worcester.
Knox, Jno., Boston.
Lane, J. E., Springfield.
Lanman, A. L., Boston.
Leach, H. L., Boston.
Leavitt, C. M., Boston.
Litchfield, Wm. F., Lowell.
Little, John S., Hadley Falls.
Littlefield, E. W., Norwood.
Littlefield, Viola, Norwood.
Lopez, Ramon L., Bridgewater.
Lowe, Geo. R., Fitchburg.
Lowe, Herbert G., Fitchburg.
Lowe, Ira A., Boston.
Macomber, W. H., Medford.
Maloney, Jennie E., Worcester.
Mareau, Valetta C., Hubbardston.
Marsh, Luella M., East Cambridge.
Marston, E. B., Everett.
Martin, Caroline, Salem.
Mason, Josie V., Merrimac.
Mason, L. V., Boston.
McCarthey, Nellie F., Somerville.
McCray, K. B., Boston.
McDonald, J. A., Rockland.
McRoberts, E. M., Brookline.
Mead, Mrs. John, Boston.
Meserve, Abbie M., Springfield.
Meserve, Mrs. Abbie M., Boston.
Meserve, Alice W., Springfield.
Meserve, Alonzo, Boston.
Meserve, Chas. F., Springfield.
Miner, A. A., Boston.
Montgomery, Mrs. E. A., Somerville.
Morrison, Ascha, Boston.
Morrison, G. D., Boston.
Morrison, H. D., Boston.
Morse, F. E., Auburndale.
Morton, Eunice J., Hatfield.
Nelson, Jeanet, Lawrence.
Newhall, Geo. M., Lynn.
Newhall, M. T., Auburndale.
Newhall, Wm. R., Auburndale.
Nickols, C. E., Waltham.
Noble, M., Newton.
Norcross, Alice I., Watertown.
Norcross, H. H., Watertown.
Noyes, Albert, West Newton.
Nye, Abbie F., Charlestown.
Oakley, R. B., Boston.
O'Donnell, Mrs., Boston.
Page, Lura E., N. Cambridge.
Palmer, M. H., East Boston.
Palmer, H. Rose, Brookline.
Palmer, S. Palmer, Boston.
Parker, Louisa P., Cambridge.
Parmenter, Chas. W., Waltham.
Partridge, D. A., Whitman.
Pattel, S. S., Boston.
Perry, Eliza H., Springfield.
Phelps, A. O., Worcester.
Pierce, G. C., Ashland.
Pierce, P. H., Ashland.
Plimpston, H. A., Lynn.
Poole, Carrie, Boston.
Poore, H. H., Hyde Park.
Prime, Ella L., Salem.
Prime, Sam'l S., Salem.
Ratigan, Jno., Worcester.
Reamy, Clara A., East Weymouth.
Robinson, Eva W., Weymouth.
Rockwood, Mrs. Geo. H., N. Brookfield.
Rogerson, W. B., Boston.
Rollins, Mabel, Chelsea.
Root, A. B., Springfield.
Root, L. A., Springfield.
Rourke, M. A., Worcester.
Ryder, J. P., Boston.
Sampson, Ellen R., Medford.
Sampson, Walter, Lake View.
Sanger, Cora E., Sherburne.
Sargent, Sarah L., Merrimac.
Sawyer, M. C., Boston.
Semple, Lulu, Boston.
Shaw, L. H., Boston.
Shaw, Nellie L., Boston.
Sheldon, Emma Louise, W. Newton.
Sheldon, Mrs. Mary A., W. Newton.
Sibley, Willard E., Waltham.
Simonds, L. S., Athol Centre.
Simpson, E. J., Boston.
Simpson, J. A., Boston.
Silver, Edgar O., Boston.
Smith, Allie M., Greenfield.
Smith, Iram N., Fall River.
Smith, Mrs. Iram N., Fall River.
Smith, Justin H., Boston.
Smith, Minna C., Melrose.
Smith, Nellie O., Greenfield.
Spalter, Abbie M., Springfield.
Stevens, A. J. O., Cambridge.
Stocken, A. C., Boston.
Stone, A. P., Springfield.
Stone, Silas C., Boston.
Stowell, Helen L., Boston.
Sullivan, J. C., Middleborough.
Sullivan, Mrs. J. C., Middleborough.
Supple, Mary, Hopkinton.
Swuster, C. M., Wakefield.
Sylvester, Herbert F., Newtonville.
Symonds, Wm. P., Woburn.
Taylor, Clara R., Buckland.
Thayer, Mary S., Cambridge.
Thompson, E. W., Boston.
Thurber, Samuel, Roxbury.
Towne G. W., Topsfield.
Towne, Mrs. G. W., Topsfield.
Tucker, F. J., Boston.
Underwood, E. M., E. Lexington.
Veazie, Carrie R., Randolph.
Verity, Lucy J., Leominster.
Wade, M. E., Natick.
Wadsworth, Grace, Lawrence.
Wait, Georgia V., Waltham.
Waite, Harriet G., Worcester.
Walker, Agnes, Chelsea.

MASSACHUSETTS. (*Continued.*)

Walker, F. W., Boston.
Wallace, Mary A., Milford.
Wardwell, Clara P., Salem.
Warner, Carrie L., Hatfield.
Willington, Joseph, Boston.
Wheeler, H. N., Boston.
Whitcomb, A. K., Lowell.
White, A. M., Farmersville.
White, S. L., Fitchburg.
Wild, Abbie E., Allston.
Winchell, S. R., Boston.
Winchester, Chas. T., Springfield.
Winchester, Mrs. Fannie, Springfield.
Williams, Carrie L., Wellesley.
Williamson, Charlotte L., Boston.
Winship, A. E., Boston.
Wood, Robt. W., Jamaica Plain.
Wood, S. I., Medfield.
Woodbury, Clara, Boston.
Woodward, Clara O., Foxborough.
Worcester, Mary P., Boston.
Wooster, Mary J., Boston.
Wyeth, Bessie F., Cambridge.

MICHIGAN.

Abernathy, E. F., Utica.
Abler, Mary, Grand Rapids.
Aleshire, O. E., Buchanan.
Allen, Alfreda, Pokagon.
Anderson, Maggie, Benton Harbor.
Angell, J. B., Ann Arbor.
Arbury, F. W., Trenton.
Ashley, Sara, Cassopolis.
Bailey, Hattie M., Grand Rapids.
Bailey, Susie, Grand Rapids.
Baldwin, Nellie, Buchanan.
Bangs, Belle B., Sawyer.
Barkley, M. O., Grand Rapids.
Barnes, Geo., Powell.
Beardley, Grace, Flint.
Beckell, Chas. W., Ludington.
Beech, Effie, Lansing.
Briggs, E. L., Grand Haven.
Bemis, C. L., Portland.
Benham, A. D., Olivet.
Benn, Emily A., East Saginaw.
Blakesley, Carrie, Negaunee.
Blakley, A., Grand Rapids.
Blinn, Mamie, Port Huron.
Bockins, Mrs. M. A., Coopersville.
Bowling, Mrs. M. F., Detroit.
Baxter, Carrie L., Ann Arbor.
Brooks, Wm. H., Ypsilanti.
Browne, Hattie, Cold Water.
Buchanan, Alice, Plainwell.
Buell, Viola, Richland.
Burkhead, P. G., Saginaw.
Burling, Clara A , Muskegon.
Burling, Mrs. T., Muskegon.
Bush, Emma L., Ishpenning.
Butts, Wm. H., Orchard Lake.
Butz, Anna B., Jonesville.
Caltrell, Annie M., Battle Creek.
Campbell, Nancy, Grand Rapids.
Carle, Lyn L., Grand Rapids.
Carman, C. W., Ann Arbor.
Carpenter, Eugene A., Caledonia.
Cathcart, A. M., Sturger.
Chaffer, Mrs. C. G., Flint.
Chase, Mabel, Adrian.
Cheever, W. H., Three Rivers.
Chellis, Abbie, Grand Rapids.
Church, E. P., Battle Creek.
Church, M. A., Detroit.
Clark, Helen, Detroit.
Cole, Alma, Negaunee.
Cole, H. L., Pontiac.
Cole, L. R., Pontiac.
Colwell, Abbie, Norway.
Colwell, Carrie, Norway.
Cornell, Florence, Cold Water.
Cornell, Mae., Cold Water.
Courville, Elizabeth, Detroit.
Courville, Ida, Detroit.
Cousin, Libbie, Plainwell.
Cox, W. J., Hancock.
Coye, Sophia, Slurgis.
Craig, A. A., Detroit.
Curtis, A. E., Adrian.
Curtis, Mrs. A. E., Adrian.
Curtis, Ed. T., Calumet.
Davenport, Ida A., Grand Rapids.
Davies, Etolie, Lawton.
Davis, L. S., Grand Rapids.
Dole, Mattie, Grand Rapids.
Doran, J. V., Grand Rapids.
Doy, Fannie, Grandville.
Doy, L. J., Ludington.
Doyle, F. L. E., Grand Rapids.
Doyle, M. E., Grand Rapids.
Driggs, Nellie L., Cold Water.
Duprau, Edward, Tawas City.
Dyer, C. E., East Saginaw.
Ellis, Wm. A., Detroit.
Ellnwood, Della, Adrian.
Elms, Florence L., Charlotte.
Estabrook, J. E., Lansing.
Everhart, Ella M., Grand Rapids.
Ewing, J. W., Iona.
Fairbairn, M. E., Detroit.
Ferguson, Hattie, Grand Rapids.
Ferris, W. N., Big Rapids.
Field, Abbie, Grand Rapids,
Field, Emma, Grand Rapids.
Fisher, E. M., Marine City.
Fisher, Mrs. E. M., Marine City.
Folson, Mary, Ada.
Foote, E. F., Detroit.
Foot, E. S., Detroit.

MICHIGAN. *(Continued.)*

Forbes, Ira L., Vassar.
Ford, Stella, Grand Rapids.
Francisco, W. J., Cresco.
Frank, Augusta, East Saginaw.
French, H. N., Kalamazoo
Gamlin, Cora, Grand Rapids.
Garbutt, J. E., Nottawa.
George, Austin, Ypsilanti.
George, Mrs. Austin, Ypsilanti.
Gillis, E., Detroit.
Glover, Fannie E., Cassopolis.
Gorton, L. G., Detroit.
Grahman, Mary, Jonesville.
Grawn, C. T., Traverse City.
Grimes, Lillian I., Ganger.
Hafford, Ferris S., Sherwood.
Hale, E. Jay, Detroit.
Hale, Mrs. E. Jay, Detroit.
Hall, A. S., Cadillac.
Haller, Mary C., Buchanan.
Halsey, L. R., Battle Creek.
Hardy, A. R., Pine Lake.
Harris, Mrs. M. L., Detroit.
Haughey, Jos. H., Battle Creek.
Hawley, Aggie, Iron Mountain.
Hawley, Katie, Cedar River.
Hayes, Mrs. E. L., Ypsilanti.
Hayes, Ella L., Ypsilanti.
Hayes, W. K., Rochester.
Haight, E. E., Ludington.
Hinsdill, Lillian, Grand Rapids.
Hosking, Susie, Norway.
Hougham, Frona R., Birmingham.
Hovey, Mrs. C., Muskegan.
Hoyt, Jessie, Wayland.
Hume, Maria A., Lansing.
Hunting, Geo. F., Alma.
Hurrell, Anna, Owosso.
Hutchinson, Adella, Grand Rapids.
Hutchins, Kate S., Ludington.
Hyde, J. J., Rockford.
Irish, Ella P., Adrian.
Irland, L. E., Plano.
Jackson, B. L., Richland.
Jennings, A. E., Decalut.
Joachimsthal, Carrie, Detroit.
Jones, Anna M., Ann Arbor.
Jones, John H., Dowagiac.
Kane, Kate, Hillsdale.
Kendall, F. M., Grand Rapids.
Kennedy, Madelene, Grand Rapids.
Kern, Frank L., Sherwood.
Kilbourne, C. L., Lansing.
Kilbourne, E. L., Lansing.
King, H., Olivet.
Knapp, Ella A., Comstock.
Knox, E. J., Hart.
Kollen, G. P., Wolland.
Kromer, Lucy, Grand Rapids.
Kromer, Mary, Grand Rapids.
Laird, L. B., East Tawas.
Lake, Francis M., Jackson.
Lawton, Julia, Coopersville.
LeRoy, Mary, Pontiac.
Linton, Sophia, Kalamazoo.
Lodeman, Aug., Ypsilanti.
Lowry, W. T., Coldwater.
Lynch, Margaret, Grand Rapids.
Maley, Anna R., St. Clair.
Martin, Minnie, Jonesville.
Mason, Delia A., Grand Rapids.
Mayhew, Emma, Detroit.
MacKenzie, David, Flint.
MacQuiestan, W. D., Caseville.
McCall, Sylvia H., Grand Rapids.
McEwin, J., Lansing.
McLean, A. L., Ludington.
McRae, Emma, Hart.
Mildon, Ada, Ishpenning.
Mills, Mattie, Hillsdale.
Miner, W. P., Hillsdale.
Moralle, Mrs. M. M., Hancock.
Morley, M. Etta, Flint.
Moss, Carrie, Grand Rapids.
Murray, A. J., Sault de St. Marie.
Nichol, B. E., Ann Arbor.
Noble, J. I. P., Flint.
Norton, L. S., Alpena.
O'Brien, E. A., Jackson.
Ougheltree, V. S., Adrian.
Owen, Mary N., Grand Rapids.
Palmer, Sybil C., Saginaw City.
Palmeter, Maggie, Hart.
Peeke, Eloise S., Centerville.
Plank, Carrie, Grand Rapids.
Porter, R. F., Ann Arbor.
Post, Nellie, Grand Rapids.
Pratt, Gertrude.
Putnam, D., Ypsilanti.
Rankin, Ida E., Battle Creek.
Ransom, Clara, Grand Rapids.
Rarick, Flora, Lansing.
Reynold, Rose, Manistee.
Ripple, L. M., Kalamazoo.
Robinson, W. E., Detroit
Rogers, Nellie C., Grand Rapids.
Ropes, M. T., Ishpenning.
Russell, E. T., Manistee.
Russell, Nellie, Jackson.
Schick, Louisa V., Ludington.
Scott, H. M., Detroit.
Seaton, Nellie, Jackson.
Seibley, Emma, Lansing.
Seveer, Mrs. F. B., Saginaw City.
Sharkey, Rose A., Crow Island.
Sheffield, J. H., Manistee.
Shepard, O. L., Olivet.
Shepard, Mrs. O. L., Olivet.
Shepherd, Mrs. L. B., Hillsdale.
Shwart, W. L., Jonesville.
Sill, J. M. B., Ypsilanti.
Simmons, James W., Dowagiac.
Slawson, H. M., Houghton.
Soog, Libbie, Wayland.
Southall, J. M., Detroit.
Smeeth, Frankie, Wayland.
Smith, Ella C., Grand Rapids.
Sprague, H. Sophie, Grand Rapids.

MICHIGAN. *(Continued.)*

Squier, Carrie, Lansing.
Stanley, M. H., Ypsilanti.
Stevens, Mrs. L. A. W., Cold Water.
Steward, W. G., Wyandotte.
Stuart, Jno. A., Monroe.
Stout, Amanda, Grand Rapids.
Stow, Nellie, Adrian.
Stowell, Bertha F., Grand Rapids.
Stray, Geo. N., Ludington.
Stray, Mrs. Geo. N., Ludington.
Strong, E. A., Ypsilanti.
Sutherland, Lydia, Battle Creek.
Sutton, Nellie, Detroit.
Tabe, Ella E., Lansing.
Taylor, Addie, Grandville.
Taylor, Emma, Grandville.
Tedman, A. S., Dansville.
Thomas, Belle, Decatur.
Thomas, C. B., East Saginaw.
Thomas, Emma, Detroit.
Thompson. E. C., Albion.
Thompson, Jennie, Bay City.
Thompson, Jessie, Dowagiac.
Tibbetts, J., Iona.
Town, Ella, Jackson.
Turner, Nellie L., Grand Rapids.
Tuthell, V. M., Dowagiac.
Tyler, Florence, Adrian.
Van Deman, Alice, Benzonia.
Van Deman, E. B., Climax.
Vanderwalker, Nina C., Kalamazoo.
Voight, Christine, Detroit.
Waldo, E. F., Three Rivers.
Walker, Geo. W., Adrian.
Walker, Ida M., Detroit.
Waxman, A. M., Albion.
Webster, A. F., Mason.
Weed, Florence A., Grand Rapids.
Wells, F. P., Lansing.
Wells, L. V., Wyandotte.
Wells, Lillie, Bay City.
Whipple, Anna M., Detroit.
White, C. G., Lake Linden.
White. Mrs. C. G., Lake Linden.
White, Lizzie, Scotts.
Wilkins, A. O., Ypsilanti.
Wooster, Marilla C., Hillsdale.
Wyckoff, J. A., Grand Rapids.
Yates, F. B., Jackson.
Young, Carrie J., Parma.
Yutema, D. B., St. Johns.

MINNESOTA.

Abbott, F. C., St. Paul.
Abbott, Mrs. F. C., St. Paul.
Abel, Myra, Brainerd.
Adams, Fannie, Minneapolis.
Adams, Mrs. S. B., St. Paul.
Adelsohn, Louis, St. Paul.
Aiton, Geo. B., Minneapolis.
Albert, John, New Ulm.
Alexander, Mattie C., Austin
Allen, D. A., Minneapolis.
Allen, Mrs. D. A., Minneapolis.
Allen, Emma F., Preston.
Allen, Louis G., Sank Centre.
Alleson, J. A., Minneapolis.
Anderson, Jno., St. Paul.
Anderson, John J., St. Paul.
Anderson, Marie C., St. Paul.
Angell, Alice B., Sank Centre.
Angell, James F., St. Paul.
Armatage, A. W., Minneapolis.
Ashby, C. H., St. Paul.
Avery, E. C., Minneapolis.
Avery, J. E., Minneapolis.
Ayer, Mrs. J. E., Duluth.
Backus, P. F., Minneapolis.
Bacon, H. A., Hutchinson.
Bacon, M., Minneapolis.
Baker, C. F., Minneapolis.
Baker, E. B., St. Paul.
Ballard, Mrs. Jane R., Anoka.
Barclay, J. A., St. Paul.
Barker, Mrs. C. A., St. Paul.
Barker, Emma F., St. Paul.
Barker, J. J., St. Paul.
Barnett, Alice, Minneapolis.
Barry, P. F., St. Paul.
Bartlett, F. A., St. Paul.
Barton, E., Minneapolis.
Barton, Mrs. E., Minneapolis.
Bassett, Daniel, Minneapolis.
Batlo, J. P., Red Wing.
Baxter, C. F., Minneapolis.
Baxter, Jno. F., Minneapolis.
Beat, Edwin H., St. Paul.
Beckman, Anna, Minneapolis.
Beckwith, S. C., Minneapolis.
Bedford, Josephine, Adrian.
Benedict, H. D., Minneapolis.
Benton, C. W., Minneapolis.
Bernhard, E., Dodge Centre.
Blackman, C. E., Northfield.
Blake, Mrs. C. B., Minneapolis.
Blakesley, Frank, Minneapolis.
Bliss, H. D., Minneapolis.
Bock, C., Minneapolis.
Bohrer, J. M., St. Paul.
Bohrer, Mark E., St. Paul.
Bohrer, Mrs. Mark, St. Paul.
Boland, Mrs. C., Minneapolis.
Bonniwell, Mrs. E. C., Minneapolis.
Borace, S. E., St. Paul.
Borget, H., Ellsworth.
Bosworth, Dora, Minneapolis.
Bosworth, I., Minneapolis.
Bover, A. D., Minneapolis.
Bowker, H. A., Minneapolis.
Boyd, H. W., Hutchinson.
Boyd, Mrs. R. H., Minneapolis.

MINNESOTA. (*Continued.*)

Bradford, A. R., St. Paul.
Brady, Edward, Albert Lea.
Brady, James, Caledonia.
Bramier, Mollie, Winona.
Brandt, E., New Ulm.
Bray, Lizzie, Blooming Prairie.
Breslauer, M., Minneapolis.
Breslaner, Mrs. M., Minneapolis.
Brevig, T. L., Starbuck.
Briggs, W. S., Minneapolis.
Brimhall, Eliza, St. Paul.
Brimhall, Gertie E., St. Paul.
Brimhall, W. E., St. Paul.
Brintiff, C. J., Minneapolis.
Brooks, E. N., Minneapolis.
Brooks, Jabes, Minneapolis.
Brooks, Mrs. J., Minneapolis.
Brooks, L. May, Minneapolis.
Brown, Anna M., Minneapolis.
Brown, B., Minneapolis.
Brown, Ida G., Minneapolis
Brown, Jane I., Minneapolis.
Brown, R. H., Minneapolis.
Brown, W. J., Monticello.
Brown, Mrs. W. J., Monticello.
Browne, D. E., Minneapolis.
Brownson, Ralph, St. Paul.
Brownson, Mrs. Ralph, St. Paul.
Bryant, L. L., St. Paul.
Bryant, Mollie J., St. Paul.
Bugbee, Geo. K., Anoka.
Buntin, Ria D., Minneapolis.
Burchard, S. B., Minneapolis.
Burgess, Lettie M., Sank Centre.
Burhart, Julia, Minneapolis.
Burnham, Hattie L., Moorhead.
Burnham, Jessie, Moorhead.
Burns, Etta E., Winona.
Busee, Minnie, Shakopee.
Bushnell, Mrs. H. A., Mankato.
Butler, Josephine H. Winona.
Caldwell, E. B., Minneapolis.
Caldwell, Mrs. E. B., Minneapolis.
Caldwell, Sara, Minneapolis.
Campbell, I. W., Anoka.
Campbell, J. E., St. Cloud.
Campbell, M. L., Brainerd.
Campbell, W. E., Brainerd.
Carter, Anna H., St. Paul.
Cander, M. E., Winona.
Chapman, Emma, Minneapolis.
Chapman, J. H., Rochester.
Chandler, G., Minneapolis.
Cheney, Wm., Minneapolis.
Chilcoat, A. B., Sank Centre.
Chilcoat, Mrs. E., Minneapolis.
Christ, Geo. B., Red Wing.
Clark, L. L., Minneapolis.
Clarke, A. S., Winona.
Clarke, F. B., Minneapolis.
Clute, J. R., Minneapolis.
Cobb, H. E., Minneapolis.
Cochrane, M. M., Minneapolis.
Collister, Estelle, Minneapolis.
Condon, F. D., Shakopee.
Coon, Jennie, Northfield.
Cooper, O. A., Minneapolis.
Corning, Jno., St. Paul.
Cotton, Mrs. Chris., Minneapolis.
Couse, Della T., Winona.
Coxhead, John H., St. Paul.
Crandall, H., St. Paul.
Crandall, H. B., Minneapolis.
Crandon, J. B., Minneapolis.
Crary, Geo. H., Red Wing.
Cross, Clara N., Minneapolis.
Culver, William, Minneapolis.
Cummings, J. H., Anoka.
Cunningham, J. W., St. Paul.
Curtis, D. P., Hutchinson.
Curtis, Virgil D., Winona.
Czeszinski, J. H., St. Paul.
Dalton, G. E., St. Paul.
Darrah, Minnie E., St. Paul.
Davis, A. C., St. Paul.
Dawley, D. L., Wabasha.
Day, Anna L., Hutchinson.
Day, Geo. G., St. Paul.
Day, Geo. N., Brainerd.
Day, Mollie L., Hutchinson.
Dearborn, Rebecca, Hutchinson.
Dearborn, Sumner, Hutchinson.
Decoster, Ed., St. Paul.
DeLancy, T. L., Northfield.
DeLees, Ed., Minneapolis.
DeMiller, Effa, Minneapolis.
DeMiller, N. S., Minneapolis.
DeMiller, Mrs. N. S., Minneapolis.
Deming, Alhansbro, Winona.
Denfield, R. E., Duluth.
Dickhaut, Mrs., Minneapolis.
Dickson, J. M., St. Paul.
Dinsare, G. W., St. Paul.
Donaldson, J. W., St. Paul.
Donavan, Anna C., Minneapolis.
Donovan, Carrie, Winona.
Donovan, Mrs. H. R., Winona.
Door, Addie L., St. Paul.
Doyle, Mrs. Z. R., Stillwater.
Drake, H. B., St. Paul.
Drew, Mamie, Winona.
Drewry, E., St. Paul.
Dunn, Adelaide, Minneapolis.
Duplessis, C. O., Minneapolis.
Dyer, S. H., St. Paul.
Dysinger, Emma, St. Paul.
Eberman, W. S., St. Paul.
Eddy, Belle, Anoka.
Eddy, Florence, Minneapolis.
Egholm, W. T., Minneapolis.
Elford, A. S., Rochester.
Elliel, H. H., Minneapolis.
Ells, Mary E., Minneapolis.
Ennell, O. E., St. Paul.
Faganer, Donnie, St. Paul.
Falconer, J. A., Minneapolis.
Farney, Mrs. Ellen, Minneapolis.
Fay, Etta J., Stillwater.

MINNESOTA.—(*Continued.*)

Fenstenmaker, C. P., Breckenridge.
Firth, V. H., Lewiston.
Fitch, E. T., Austin.
Fitch, S. H., St. Paul.
Fleck, A. M., Austin.
Fleming, A. R., Minneapolis.
Flaming, Mrs. A., Minneapolis
Fling, F. A., St. Paul.
Flint, Geo. G., St. Paul.
Flint, S. K., St. Paul.
Flowers, H. H., Cleveland.
Flynn, C. O., Duluth.
Foan, A. B., St. Paul.
Folwell, W. D., Minneapolis.
Ford, F. E., Glencoe.
Forster, Anna, Chatfield.
Foster, Emma E., Minneapolis.
Foster, L., Minneapolis.
Foster, May, Minneapolis.
Frackelton. D. S., Minneapol
Franklin, Benj., St. Vincent.
Franklin, Mrs. Benj., St. Vincent.
French, C. H., Lakeville.
French, M. W., St. Paul.
Friedlaender, S., Minneapolis.
Friedlien, J., Minneapolis.
Friedmann, Carrie E., New Ulm.
Frost, Mrs. A. S., Ft. Snelling.
Frost, E. P., Glencoe.
Fuller, E. M., Minneapolis.
Fuller, Marion W., Minneapolis.
Funk, Annie K., Minneapolis.
Gaeger, R. G., Minneapolis.
Ganger, A. F., St. Paul.
Gardner, S. P., Hastings.
Gardner, W. H., Minneapolis.
Gault, Alice R., St. Peter.
Gates, Laura, St. Paul.
Geddes, George, Anoka.
Geddes, Mrs. S. D., Anoka.
George, E. F., Glyndon.
Getchel, Hallie, St. Cloud.
Gibbard, A. W., St. Vincent.
Gibbons, M., Minneapolis.
Gibbs, C. M., Minneapolis.
Gibson, D. J., St. Paul.
Gilbraith, H. J., Minneapolis.
Gillies, E. M., Breckenridge.
Gillis, W. H., Waseca.
Goldsmith, E., St. Paul.
Goldsmith, Ethel, St. Paul.
Goldsmith, Francis, St. Paul.
Goldsmith, R., St. Paul.
Gould, J. G., St. Cloud.
Gould, Jennie, St. Paul.
Grant, Clara, Winona.
Graves, D. D., New Auburn.
Graves, Mrs. D. D., New Auburn.
Gray, F. J., St. Cloud.
Gregory, D. B., Minneapolis.
Greenblat, D., St. Paul.
Greene, R. T., Sank Centre.
Greenough, P. L., Farmington.
Gress, H. B., Northfield.
Gross, Otis C., Laneville.
Grossman, C., Minneapolis.
Guild, Belle C., Minneapolis.
Gunthier, J. C., St. Paul.
Hackett, Jno., Minneapolis.
Hagberg, Julia, New Ulm.
Hall, H., St. Paul.
Hall, Mrs., Glencoe,
Hall, R. L., Anoka.
Halley, E., St. Paul.
Hallowell, M. L., Winona.
Halverson. J. R. Albert Lea.
Halvorson, E., Minneapolis.
Hambro, Louis, Minneapolis.
Hamilton, A. I., Hutchinson.
Hamilton, Mrs. A. I., Hutchinson.
Hamilton, Gracie, Hutchinson.
Hamilton, J. J., Minneapolis.
Hand, Laura, St. Paul.
Harcourt, J. M., Minneapolis.
Harper, Geo. S., Minneapolis.
Harr, W. S., Wadena.
Harr, Mrs. W. S., Wadena.
Harris, A. T., Minneapolis.
Harris, W. L., Minneapolis.
Hartshorn, Wm. E., Crookston.
Hatten, Annie, Steward.
Havens, H. R., Minneapolis.
Hawkes, Mrs. E. A., Campbell.
Hawkey, J. A., Rochester.
Hawkins, H. O., Minneapolis.
Hayes, F. N., St. Paul.
Hayward, L. H., St. Paul.
Headley, C. W., Winnebargo City.
Hebenstreit, Rose, Stillwater.
Heiney, Will M., Winona.
Heff, W. E., St. Paul.
Hench, W. R., Minneapolis.
Henderson, A. E., St. Paul.
Heiskovitz, H., St. Paul.
Hiland, J. H., Minneapolis.
Hill, A. E., Winnebargo City.
Hill, James K., Waterville.
Hobart, W. C., Minneapolis.
Hodge, Irwin P., Rochester.
Holbrook, F. W., St. Paul.
Holgen, Josephine, St. Paul.
Hollester, W. M., Minneapolis.
Holzinger, J. N., Winona.
Honey, C. A., Minneapolis.
Honey, C. F., Minneapolis.
Honey, Jas., Minneapolis.
Hopkins, H. A., Minneapolis.
Hotchkiss, Belle, Minneapolis.
Howard, Harry J., Minneapolis.
Howe, Mary, Minneapolis.
Hoyt, Chas. W., St. Cloud.
Hubbard, R. D., Mankato.
Hunt, J. A., Minneapolis.
Hunt, W. A., Minneapolis.
Huntly, Emir, North Branch.
Hush, A. B., Minneapolis.
Hyde, C. W. G., St. Cloud.
Hyde, Leon W., St. Cloud.

MINNESOTA.—(*Continued.*)

Jacobi, C., Sank Centre.
James, Bessie, Anoka.
Jeffrey, T. Minneapolis.
Jennison, C. E., Minneapolis.
Jewett, Mrs. F. A., St. Paul.
Johnson, F. M., St Paul.
Johnson, J. K., Minneapolis.
Johnson Lavina, St. Peter.
Jones, D. W., Minneapolis.
Jones, H. A., Minneapolis.
Jones, H. C., St. Paul.
Jones, Kate M., St. Peter.
Jones, L. A., Minneapolis.
Jones, Mira C., Minneapolis.
Jones, W. S., Minneapolis.
Jones, Mrs. W. S., Minneapolis.
Judd, M. C., Minneapolis.
Keeler, M. J., Minneapolis.
Kelley, Emma L., St. Paul.
Kelley, Helen T., St. Paul.
Kelsey, Ella, Anoka.
Kennedy, Joseph, St. Paul.
Keyes, Anson, Faribault.
Kiehle, D. L., Minneapolis.
King, Hattie A., Anoka.
King, L. L., St. Louis.
Kinne, Mrs. I. B., Minneapolis.
Kirkpatrick, F. S., St. Paul.
Knight, Celia, Glencoe.
Knight, Mrs. S. H., Minneapolis.
Kreiser, Mrs. Mary, Minneapolis.
La Croix, V. L., St. Paul.
Lamb, John M., Minneapolis.
Larkins, E. H., St. Paul.
Larrabee, E. A., Glencoe.
Lathrop, V. W., St. Paul.
Lauglin, Ada M., St. Paul.
Lawrence, A. A., St. Paul.
Lawson, F., Minneapolis.
Lawson, J. A., Minneapolis.
Le Gor, Fannie C., Minneapolis.
Lehmicke, Jane T., Stillwater.
Leighton, W. G., Minneapolis.
Lemire, Carrie, St. Paul.
Lemire, Dosithe, St. Paul.
Lemire, Louisa, St. Paul.
Lemire, Mrs. Sophrene, St. Paul.
Lemon, Jas. C., Minneapolis.
Leslie, Geo. E., St. Paul.
Levy, Saul, Minneapolis.
Lewis, Etta, Sank Centre.
Little, C. L., St. Paul.
Little, Wallace, Minneapolis.
Lockwood, Addie, Minneapolis.
Loens, Mary, St. Paul.
London, Fannie M., Minneapolis.
Long, J. T., Minneapolis.
Long, M. A., Minneapolis.
Long, P. J., Stillwater.
Lord, L. C., St. Peter.
Lowry, Wm. D., Minneapolis.
Loye, E. P., Minneapolis.
Lundahl, Emma, St. Paul.
Lyons, C. A., St. Paul.
Lyons, J. H., St. Paul.
Macfee, K. N., Minneapolis.
Macfee, Louisa, Minneapolis.
Macomber, C. M., Anoka.
Mahnfield, Agnes E., Winona.
Manley, Mrs. W. H., Minneapolis.
Marfield, Evelin, Winona.
Marks, F. B., Farmington.
Marshall, W. K., St. Paul.
Marshall, Mrs. W. K., St. Paul.
Martin, F. S., Minneapolis.
Mason, C., Minneapolis.
Mason, Sarah E., Minneapolis.
Mayhall, Sam'l, Minneapolis.
McCammon, Anna M., St. Paul.
McCauley, J. C., Kasson.
McCleary, J. F., Mankato.
McGee, Chas., St. Paul.
McInnes, Mary, St. Paul.
McKee, Fannagin, Minneapolis.
McKelvey, F. V., Lakeville.
McLaughlin, W. A., Minneapolis.
McNeil, Bertha, Minneapolis.
Mealy, M., St. Paul.
Mearkle, Annie L., Minneapolis.
Merritt, S. A., Winona.
Meyers, H. M., St. Paul.
Millard, C. W., Stillwater.
Millard, Geo. S., Stillwater.
Miller, A. J., Minneapolis.
Mitchell, J. L., Minneapolis.
Moak, D. C., Minneapolis.
Morton, Flora, Minneapolis.
Morton, Louise H., Minneapolis.
Moulton, Wm. J., Minneapolis.
Mullins, J. P., Minneapolis.
Munger, R. C., St. Paul.
Murchesseaunt, Mrs. C., Minneapolis.
Murdock, Emily, Wabasha.
Murdock, Fred., Minneapolis.
Murdock, Mary E., Wabasha.
Murray, E. H., St. Paul.
Murray, Mrs. E. H., St. Paul.
Neal, C. E., Minneapolis.
Nelson, Chas., St. Paul.
Nelson, Mrs. Frances A., Minneapolis.
Nelson, Mrs. K. T., Owaltona.
Nelson, N. L. T., Vasa.
Nichols, Nellie H., St. Paul.
Norcott, Clara, St. Paul,
Nott, W. S., Minneapolis.
Oakman, L. R., St. Paul.
O'Connor, Julia, St. Paul.
O'Connor, Maud. St. Paul.
Ogilvie, D., Minneapolis.
Ogilvie, H. M., Minneapolis.
Ohde, Emma, La Sueur.
O'Hearn, Julia, Minneapolis.
O'Hearn, Mary, Minneapolis.
Osborne, E. F., St. Paul.
Osborne, Mrs. E. F., St. Paul.
Ozmun, Edw. H., St. Paul.
Page, Ella L., Minneapolis.
Paine, J. M., Minneapolis.

MINNESOTA.—(*Continued.*)

Parmer, F. R., St. Paul.
Parish, E. A., St. Paul.
Patten, C., Minneapolis.
Pearson, Mary, Minneapolis.
Pearson, Mrs. W. S., Minneapolis.
Peirson, Sam L., St. Paul.
Pfaender, Amelia, New Ulm.
Pendegast, Abbie L., Hutchinson.
Pendergast, W. W., St. Paul.
Perkins, Alice, Minneapolis.
Perley, Geo. E., Mowhead.
Perry, Myers, Minneapolis.
Peters, Mrs. Mary, Minneapolis.
Pierce, Hattie, Hutchinson.
Pierce, M., Winona.
Pierce, M. N., St. Paul.
Pierce, Mrs. S. P., St. Paul.
Pond, Chas. M., Minneapolis.
Porter, A. H., St. Cloud.
Porter, B., Duluth.
Porter, Rob't, Minneapolis.
Post, C. N., St. Paul.
Powers, A. J., St. Paul.
Pratt, E. C., St. Paul.
Pullmann, F. A., St. Paul.
Pyle, E. W., Minneapolis.
Pyle, Mrs. E. W., Minneapolis.
Pyle, R. H., St. Paul.
Rainey, Katie, Duluth.
Regan, W., Minneapolis.
Reeves, Florence A., Minneapolis.
Reeves, Ida C., Minneapolis.
Rice, Ida, Wadena.
Richardson, J. M., Dodge Centre.
Ricker, H. H., Minneapolis.
Rider, R. E., St. Paul.
Robinson, M. A., Plain View.
Roche, Miss, St. Paul.
Rochelean, W. F., Moorhead.
Rocholl, L. J., St. Cloud.
Rohnback, A. B., Stillwater.
Rood, Nellie, St. Paul.
Rose, Emma, Winona.
Rowland, Emma E., Winona.
Rowley, Ollie M., St. Paul.
Rowly, Mrs. S. N., St. Paul.
Runifield, M., St. Paul.
Russell, H. D., Minneapolis.
Russell, Mrs., Glencoe.
Ryan, M. E., Anoka.
Sachre, Mrs. F. W., St. Paul.
Sage, A. E., Minneapolis.
Salisburg, C. L., Minneapolis.
Sawyer, G. C., Minneapolis.
Sawyer, Mamie, Chatfield.
Sawyer, T. O., Minneapolis.
Sawyer, Mrs. T. O., Minneapolis.
Sawyer, Wm. P., Stillwater.
Schaffer, Jennie, Minneapolis.
Schmidt, C. C., St. Cloud.
Schonlan, Jennie, New Ulm.
Schofield, J. L., Cannon River Falls.
Scone, Mary Jeane, Minneapolis.
Serwe, Jno., St. Paul.
Shackford, E. L., St. Paul.
Shepard, Irwin, Winona.
Shephard, Anna E., St. Paul.
Sheran, Mary, Waseca.
Shertzer, H. R., Minneapolis.
Shoemaker, W. A., St. Cloud.
Shoppe, Mrs. Frank, Minneapolis.
Sherman, E. A., St. Paul.
Sidener, C. F., Minneapolis.
Simmons, Echo, Minneapolis.
Simon, A. H., St. Paul.
Simons, B. H., Duluth.
Simpson, Mrs. A. C., Winona.
Slack, F. W., St. Paul.
Sladd, Geo., Adrian.
Smith, A. T., Minneapolis.
Smith, Carrie J., Minneapolis.
Smith, Clark, J., Minneapolis.
Smith, Geo. C., St. Paul.
Smith, Mrs. G. C., St. Paul.
Smith, Ira, Stillwater.
Smith, J. Paige, Minneapolis.
Smith, L. D., Minneapolis.
Smith, W. F., Minneapolis.
Snell, G. L., St. Paul.
Snell, H. M., St. Paul.
Spink, J. L., Minneapolis.
Sprague, Sara E., Minneapolis.
St. Leger, Mrs. J. E., Minneapolis.
Steller, H. J., Winona.
Steller, Mrs. H. J., Winona.
Stevens, Laura, St. Paul.
Steward, D., Rochester.
Stewart, A. B., Minneapolis.
Stiles, Orphy, Sank Centre.
Stokes, M. S., St. Paul.
Stokes, Mrs. M. S., St. Paul.
Stone, Nellie, Edgarton.
Strong, J. W., Northfield.
Sturtevan, J. B., Stillwater.
Sulk, Sam'l, Minneapolis.
Sumner, Edward A., Minneapolis.
Sumwalt, A. H., St. Paul.
Sumwalt, E. T., St. Paul.
Sunde, Julius, Minneapolis.
Sunt, Mrs. J., St. Paul.
Swahn, Chas. G., Minneapolis.
Swan, C. E., St. Paul.
Sweeney, Anna, Stillwater.
Swimming, Chas., Minneapolis.
Swift, L. R., St. Cloud.
Swift, Mrs. L. R., St. Cloud.
Tanner, Kate, Cannon River Falls.
Talbot, A. E., Minneapolis.
Taylor, C. M., Brainerd.
Taylor, S. S., St. Paul.
Terry, Fred, St. Paul.
Thelander, A. L., Cokato.
Thompson, A. F., Minneapolis.
Thompson, James, Crookston.
Tice, W. J., Minneapolis.
Timmons, Lida M., Montevideo.
Tockens, Nellie, Winona.
Toothoker, Sue, Minneapolis.

MINNESOTA.—(*Continued.*)

Towers, Candy, St. Paul.
Towler, E. L., Minneapolis.
Trevette, E. S., Minneapolis.
Trowbridge, Irene, St. Paul.
Trowbridge, Mrs. R., St. Paul.
Troy, Grace, Anoka.
Tucker, Carrie E., Minneapolis.
Turner, G. W., Minneapolis.
Ulrich V., St Paul.
Unquer, F. M., Minneapolis.
Utmer, Frank, St. Paul.
Van Alstein. E., Minneapolis.
Van Alstein K., Minneapolis.
Vananda, H. C., Minneapolis.
Van Camp, J. M., Salt Rapids.
Vinton, M. E., St. Paul.
Vinton, Mrs. M. E., St. Paul.
Voyt, F. H., Minneapolis.
Wagner, C. H., Winona.
Walker, J. G., St. Paul.
Wall, B., Minneapolis.
Wall, Mrs. B., Minneapolis.
Wallers, Geo. Jr., Kansas City.
Ware, C. W., St. Paul.
Warnock, John S., Minneapolis.
Warnock, Mrs. John S., Minneapolis.
Warren, W. J., Minneapolis.
Watkins, T. S., St. Paul.
Wells, A. M., Red Wood Falls.
Werick, Louisa, St. Paul.
Wersenberner, F. S., St. Paul.
Westfall, Amanda, St. Paul.
Wetherby, J. K., St. Paul.
Wheeler, Mrs. H. A., Minneapolis.
White, Cyrus A., Minneapolis.
White, D. G, Hutchinson.
White, Eliza, Minneapolis.
White, Fred A., Minneapolis.
White, J. D., Farmington.
White, Wm. C., Duluth.
White, Mrs. Wm. C., Duluth.
Whitney, Emma M., Winona.
Whitney, Hattie. Oak Grove.
Wiese, Effie, Minneapolis.
Weisser, John, Minneapolis.
Williams, Fannie M., St. Paul.
Williams, Grace A., Minneapolis.
Williams, S. J., Minneapolis.
Williams, Tillie J., Anoka.
Willman, Mrs. J. R., Minneapolis.
Wilson, Frank T., Stillwater.
Wilson, M. D., Minneapolis.
Wolcott, Mrs. J. R., Minneapolis.
Wolcott, Marion E., Sank Centre.
Wolfberry, Mrs. J., St. Paul.
Wolf, E., St. Paul.
Wolverton, Lucra M., Minneapolis.
Wood, S., Minneapolis.
Woodberry, Ada A., St. Paul.
Woodbury, E. M., St. Paul.
Woodmanse, C. C., St. Paul.
Woodruff, Mrs. M. B., Minneapolis.
Wortman, R. W., St. Paul.
Wright, Anna V., St. Paul.
Wright, E., St. Paul.
Wright, Levi, Worthington.
Wyman, R., Minneapolis.
Young, C. S., St. Paul.
Young, F. E., St. Paul.

MISSISSIPPI.

Burns, J. H., Rodney.
Montgomery, M. A., Oxford.
Moore, Mrs. A. M., Byhalia.
Moss, Minnie E., Byhalia.
Ross, C. R., Byhalia.
Tucker, J. H., Byhalia.
Tucker, K. E., Byhalia.

MISSOURI.

Adkinson, Lydia, Clinton.
Agnew, S. J., Kansas City.
Albin, Emma, St. Joseph.
Alcutt, Mrs. R. M., Kansas City.
Allison, M. L., Minneapolis.
Anderson, W. B., La Belle.
Andrews, Addie E., St. Louis.
Archer, Fannie L., St. Louis.
Arends, Lena, St. Joseph.
Ashmore, Gertrude, Hannibal.
Astley, John V., Kansas City.
Atkins, H. M., Kansas City.
August, E. J., St. Joe.
Aurmeeneau, M. E., Lewiston.
Avery, N. B., Clinton.
Bailey, S. R., Kansas City.
Baird, A., Moberly.
Ball, Ella L., Kansas City.
Ball, I. V., Kansas City.
Barnard, Jennie, Kirksville.
Barnard, J. M., Cape Girardeau.
Barrick, Effie L., Sedalia.
Bartlett, Mrs., St. Joseph.
Bartlett, L. A., St. Joseph.
Bass, E. E., Columbia.
Bauer, John, St. Joseph.
Bauer, L. D., St. Joseph.
Baach, J. H., Carthage.
Beauvais, C. L., St. Louis.
Beauvais, Mrs. C. L., St. Louis.
Becker, J. H., St. Louis.
Beeson, Susan B., St. Louis.

MISSOURI. (*Continued.*)

Bemis, Frank M., St. Louis.
Benedict, Sarah, Kansas City.
Bennett, Carrie, Springfield.
Bentley, Mrs. Edith M., Kansas City.
Bentley, John B., Kansas City.
Blake, Gilbert, St. Joseph.
Blake, Julia, Warrensburgh.
Blaker, L. P., Cainesville.
Blaker, Mrs. L. P., Cainesville.
Blanton, Mrs., St. Joseph.
Block, E., St. Joseph.
Bocquet, J. C., St. Louis.
Boque, B. J., Kansas City.
Bonfils, Fred G., Kansas City.
Bontrager, I. W , Kansas City.
Booth, E. R., St. Louis.
Booth, Mrs. E. R., St. Louis.
Bowman, A., St. Louis.
Boyer, I. R., Kansas City.
Boyle, Loren L., St. Joseph.
Bratt, L. R., Kansas City.
Breily, E. E., Kansas City.
Brimblecom, M. H., St. Joseph.
Brooks, C. M., Kansas City.
Browell, S. A., Lee's Summit.
Brown, Addie S., Hannibal.
Brown, C. E., Cameron.
Brown, Charles E., Kansas City.
Brown, Charles W., Kansas City.
Brown, Minnie A., Kansas City.
Buchanan, John T., Kansas City.
Buckley, Laura, Blackburn.
Buckley, Nettie, Blackburn.
Buechle, William L., St. Joseph.
Burdick, C. L., Kansas City.
Buren, W. F., Princeton.
Burgour, Mary, Kansas City.
Burlingame, W. L., Carthage.
Burr, Ida, Sedalia.
Busser, S. E., Kansas City.
Bust, Lena, Tarkio,
Butler, William D., St. Louis.
Byer, M., St. Louis.
Cahoon, E. E., Kansas City.
Campbell, John, St. Louis.
Carhart, Ida M., Warrensburgh.
Carlson, Miss, Kansas City.
Carpary, Paul, Kansas City.
Carpary, Mrs. Paul, Kansas City.
Carroll, A. B., Trenton.
Carroll, J. G., Kansas City.
Cary, John A., Kansas City.
Chaney, Alice, Sedalia.
Chellis, E., Kansas City.
Chellis, Mrs. E., Kansas City.
Chellis, R. T., Kansas City.
Cheny, Mrs. Francis A., Cape Girardeau.
Chilcote, Mrs., York.
Christian, Wallace D., Paris.
Churchman, Alfred, Kansas City.
Clancy, Margaret, St. Joseph.
Clark, A. K., Kansas City.
Clark, H. O., Kansas City.
Cliff, F. H., St. Joseph.
Cole, Mrs. G. A., Kansas City.
Cole, T. L., St. Louis.
Coleman, Annie T., St. Louis.
Combs, Nettie H., Smithton.
Conger, Anna, Sedalia.
Cook, Emma, Cooks Station.
Cook, George B., Odessa.
Coole, J. F., Kansas City.
Cor, Charles, Kansas City.
Cordwell, Bella S., Kansas City.
Corkener, A. M., St. Louis.
Corkener, M. E., Louisiana.
Corwin, George, St. Louis.
Cothwell, E. L., Kansas City.
Cothwell, Mrs. E. L., Kansas City.
Cox, B., St. Louis.
Cox, M. J., Kansas City.
Coy, H., Kansas City.
Craig, Letitia, Kansas City.
Crandell, Lizzie L., Kansas City.
Crowley, Kate E., St. Louis.
Cully, Maggie, Sedalia.
Cumir, L. A., Kansas.
Curtis, Elizabeth E., Kansas City.
Cuthbert, Mrs. R. H., Kansas City.
Darst, John C., Kansas City.
Davenport, Mrs., Louisiana.
Davis, H. Clay, Bonne Terre.
Davis, O. F., Fulton.
Deacon, E. C., Harrisonville.
Dempsey, F., St. Louis.
Dickey, F., Kansas City.
Dickey, F. A., Kansas City.
Dickinson, E., St. Louis.
Dickinson, E. R., Kansas City.
Diehr, Oscar, Nevada.
Diehr, Theo., Nevada.
Dille, Mrs. J. G., Mt. Leonard.
Dodd, A. A., Warrensburg.
Doherty, M. O., Kansas City.
Doherty, Mrs. M. O., Kansas City.
Dovey, C. R., St. Louis.
Dreifuss, Annie, Brookfield.
Dudley, W. G., St. Louis.
Dufresne, Ella, Kansas City.
Dufresne, Lee, Kansas City.
Duncan, J. A., Kansas City.
Dunlap, Miss, Kansas City.
Dunlap, Lizzie, Kansas City.
Dunlap, M. F., Kansas City.
Dunn, Denton, Kansas City.
Dunsford, E. D., St. Louis.
Dwelly, M. E., St. Louis.
Eaton, Viola, Varner.
Edel, Lucas, St. Louis.
Elliott, F. D., Kansas City.
Elliott, H. W., Kansas City.
Elliott, W. J., Kansas City.
Ellison, W. M., St. Louis.
Elston, D. T., Kansas City.
Ely, Miss, St. Joseph.
Emerson, Mary E., Warrensburg.
Emmenack, I. C., Kansas City.

MISSOURI (*Continued.*)

Fairbanks Annie, Springfield.
Fairbanks; Saft. J., Springfield.
Farr, George W., Kansas City.
Farr, Mrs. George W., Kansas City.
Felkner, Josie, Nevada.
Ferrill, Emma, Moberly.
Ferrill, Lizzie, Moberly.
Fingerhut, Pauline, Kansas City.
Fink, William, St. Joseph.
Findley, M. C., Kansas City.
Fisher, T. F., Kansas City,
Fitch, Mrs. S. M., Kansas City.
Fitzpatrick, J. P., Kansas City.
Fitzpatrick, James, Kansas City.
Fitzpatrick, Mary, Kansas City.
Flaren, Mary E., Kansas City.
Fleming, W. H., Kansas City.
Follette, Giovani, Liber.
Ford, Annie, Kansas City.
Ford, Bella, Kansas City.
Ford, J. P., Kansas City.
Ford, Mrs., Kansas City.
Ford, R., St. Louis.
Foster, Frank, Kansas City.
Foster, Nellie, Kansas City.
France, C. B., St. Joseph.
Frederick, A. H., St. Louis.
Frederick, Mrs. A. H., St. Louis.
Friend, D., St. Louis.
Frowein, Arnold, Clinton.
Fulks, Mrs. Alice, Franklin.
Fulks, J. H., Franklin.
Fuller, W. H., Kansas City.
Gallagher, Margaret, St. Louis.
Gano, A. P., Kansas City.
Garrett, Mrs. C. D., Sedalia.
Garrigue, Josephine, St. Louis.
Gay, Lizzie, Lexington.
George, H. L., St. Joseph.
Gerber, Mrs. T. J., Independence.
Gerrity, Mamie, Kansas City.
Gibbons, John H., St. Louis.
Gibbons, Mrs. Lizzie, St. Louis.
Gibson, W. H., Kansas City.
Gilmer, R. F., St. Louis.
Gingles, Carrie, St. Joseph.
Going, Sarah, Kansas City.
Gottleib, S., Kansas City.
Goodlett, C. E., St. Louis.
Goodlett, W. C., St. Louis.
Goodwin, Wm., Kansas City.
Gordon, David E., St. Louis.
Greenwood, J. M., Kansas City.
Greer, Kate, Lexington.
Greer, Mrs., Liberty.
Gregory, Nora, La Belle.
Gregory, W. S., St. Joseph.
Griffin, F. B., St. Joseph.
Griffith, J. R., St. Louis.
Grimes, Mrs. E. A., Kansas City.
Grisham, G. M., Jefferson City.
Gross, J. M., Chillicothe.
Gunn, Lizzie.
Haar, Mrs. J. H., Kansas City.
Hackstaff, B. D., St. Louis.
Hackstaff, J. F., St. Louis.
Haefner, J., Kansas City.
Hager, J. L., Kansas City.
Hahn, Hortense J., Kansas City.
Halderman, G. B., St. Louis.
Hale, Mrs. M. M., Sedalia.
Hale, R. S., Sedalia.
Hall, J., Kansas City.
Hamilton, J. W., St. Louis.
Hamilton, V. B., Kansas City.
Hanley, M., Kansas City.
Hanson, A. J., Kansas City.
Hanson, Fannie, Kansas City.
Hanson, Mrs. Mollie, Kansas City.
Hapgood, J. W., Heemansville.
Hardy, Mattie, St. Louis.
Harmon, C., Joplin.
Harmon, Mrs. W., Joplin.
Harrington, Chas., St. Joseph.
Harris, D. H., Kirkwood.
Harris, Gustave, Kansas City.
Hart, Morris, Kansas City.
Harwood, Mrs., Kansas City.
Hasselt, Wm. C., Macon City.
Hawkins, Wm. J., Nevada.
Hawley, Nell, Macon City.
Hayden, F. S., St. Joseph.
Hayes, J. A., Kansas City.
Hayes, Mrs. J. A., Kansas City.
Hayes, Sarah, St. Louis.
Haynes, P. S., Rockville.
Haysler, G. C., Clinton.
Hefner, Mrs. Joseph, Kansas City.
Hefner, Lizzie, Kansas City.
Hefner, Maggie, Kansas City.
Heinz, M., St. Joseph.
Heitz, Rud., St. Louis.
Hellmich, A. J., St. Louis.
Hellmich, Fred, St. Louis.
Hellmich, H., St. Louis.
Henry, C. L., St. Louis.
Henry, Nellie, Kansas City.
Herbert, M. E., St. Joseph.
Herneman, D., Kansas City.
Hetzel, L. R., St. Louis.
Hildenbrandt, Jennie, St. Louis.
Hill, Agnes G., Nevada.
Hill, Alice, St. Joseph.
Hill, Grant, Kansas City.
Hiner, S. F., Kansas City.
Histed, Julia, St. Louis.
Hogan, O., Kansas City.
Hogg, Alex, St. Louis.
Holberg, L. M., St. Louis.
Holden, S. S., St. Louis.
Holiham, Wm., St. Joseph.
Holihan, Frances, St. Joseph.
Holland, Eva M., Kansas City.
Holland, Nell, Kansas City.
Holloway, J. L., Sedalia.
Holloway, Mrs. J. L., Sedalia.
Hope, R. L., Centralia.
Hopper, Isaac, St. Joseph.

MISSOURI. *(Continued.)*

Howard, M. E. St. Joseph.
Howe, E. H., Kansas City.
Hubbard, C. F., Canton.
Hubbard, Clara H., St. Louis.
Hubbard, John, Kansas City.
Hughes, Sarah, St. Louis.
Hunt, W. J., Farmington.
Hunter, D. P., Kansas City.
Hunter, Mrs. D. P., Kansas City.
Hussey, J. M., Stanberry.
Ingraham, R. H., Kansas City.
Irwin, Roberts, St. Charles.
Irwin, Mrs. S. A., Brookfield.
Jacobs, L. I., Kansas City.
Jenks, Mrs. O. B., Kansas City.
Jennings, Olive, Clinton.
Jennings, W. H., Kansas City.
Jennings, W. T., Clinton.
Johnson, A. D., Kansas City.
Johnson, A. L., Kansas City.
Johnson, Hattie, Warrensburgh.
Johnson, Hattie B., St. Joseph.
Jones, Mollie, St. Louis.
Jones, W. A., Kansas City.
Judd, Hiram K., St. Joseph.
Kahn, Henry, Kansas City.
Karg, John, Kansas City.
Karl, J. G., St. Louis.
Keeler, I. I., Kansas City.
Kernodle, S. A., Sedalia.
Kimball, J. Niles, Kansas City.
King, L. L., St. Louis.
King, Maggie, Kansas City.
Kinsey, L. S., Kansas City.
Kitchen, Grace A., St. Louis.
Koons, Mada, Kansas City.
Krug, Julia, St. Louis.
Lanard, John, Nevada.
Lang, Julia, Kansas City.
Lange, Theo., St. Louis.
Larny, J. A., Sedalia.
Larson, Christie, Kansas City.
Laws, S. S., Columbia.
Leavans, H. B., Kansas City.
Leavans, Mrs. H. B., Kansas City.
Leavitt, Willis H., Kansas City.
Lee, A., Kansas City.
Lee, H., Kansas City.
Leland, L. A., Kansas City.
Leonard, Mrs. A., Mt. Leonard.
Levy, Guss, St. Joseph.
Levy, May, Clinton.
Lewis, J. A., Kansas City.
Lewis, J. E., Kansas City.
Lewis, Mrs. J. E., Macon.
Lewis, J. J., Macon.
Lippy, M. L., St. Louis.
Lloyd, H. C., Kansas City.
Locke, Josephine, St. Louis.
Locke, Mrs. S., St. Louis.
Logan, G. B., Kansas City.
Longan, G. B., Kansas City.
Longmire, V. G., Lewistown.
Lowler, E. S., Kansas City.
Lyle, E. G., Hannibal.
Lynch, Mary E., St. Louis.
Lynch, W. H., West Plains.
Lynch, Mrs. W. H., West Plains.
McAuley, Luke, Kansas City.
McCargo, Mrs. A. L., St. Louis.
McCargo, Jno., St. Louis.
McClelleur, Mrs. E. E., Sedalia.
McCoy, J. M., Independence.
McDowell, C. E., Kansas City.
McKee, Mrs. E., Macon.
McKinnie, Dora F., Hannibal.
McLachlan, Robt., Kahoka.
McLain, W. H., St. Louis.
McLain, Mrs. W. H., St. Louis.
McMillan, O. E., Odessa.
McMillen, J. C., Kansas City.
McMurtny, E. P., Louisana.
McVey, C. E., Chillicothe.
McVey, Frank, Chillicothe.
McVey, Mena, Chillicothe.
Magill, M., St. Louis.
Mallon, P. E., Kansas City.
Marks, D. A., St. Louis.
Marny, E. L., St. Joseph.
Mason, M. K., Kansas City.
Mauch, Albert, St. Louis.
Mauner, C. F., Kansas City.
Maxwell, Martha A., Independence.
Merryman, J. L., St. Louis.
Merwin, J. B., St. Louis.
Metzler, J. Rud, Kansas City.
Metzzer, Lambert, St. Louis.
Midradis, M., St. Joseph.
Milich, L. J., Kansas City.
Miller, J. H., St. Louis.
Miller, Mrs. R. T., Sedalia.
Miller, S. M., Kansas City.
Miller, Susie, Nevada.
Minor, M. B., Hannibal.
Minor, D. A., Kansas City.
Mitchell, Brook, St. Joseph.
Moody, Mrs. C. S., Kansas City.
Moody, S. C., Kansas City.
Moore, A. W., St. Louis.
Moore, F. A., St. Louis.
Moore, W. H., Kansas City.
Morris, H. L., Kansas City.
Morrison, S. Q., Kansas City.
Morse, Mrs. Louise M., Kansas City.
Morton, Jesse, King City.
Morton, M. Alex, Kansas City.
Moukler, J., St. Louis.
Mount, W. A., Kansas City.
Mount, Mrs. W. A., Kansas City.
Moyer, Wm. J., Kansas City.
Mugam, M. D., St. Louis.
Murray, C. R., Kansas City.
Murray, Chas., Kansas City.
Nason, J. C., Macon.
Nearing, C. H., Kansas City.
Nelson, Geo. H., Kansas City.

MISSOURI. (*Continued.*)

Nelson, J. Q., Kirkville.
Newton, H. A., Kansas City.
Newton, S. W., Kansas City.
Nicholas, J. L., Kansas City.
Nicholas, Mrs. J. L., Kansas City.
Nicholl, R. H., St. Louis.
Nichols, A. S., Kansas City.
Norton, R. C., Cape Girardeau.
Nouss, A. M., St. Louis.
Noyes, James, St. Joseph.
Ohindorf, C., St. Louis.
Oldham, R. E., Jefferson City.
Olin, Mrs. Emma, Kansas City.
Onstott, J. W., Kansas City.
Osborn, H. L., Kansas City.
Osborn, Lulu, Bates City.
Osborne, G. L., Warrensburgh.
Osburn, M. V., St. Louis.
Ostrand, J. B., Chillicothe.
Ott, Cora B., Springfield.
Owen, Ermie, Clinton.
Papineau, A., Bethany.
Papineau, F., Bethany.
Parberry, Sue, Sedalia.
Parrish, O. A., Springfield.
Parry, Mrs. G. G., St. Joseph.
Parsons, F. W., California.
Parsons, Frank, St. Louis.
Pearson, J. G., Kansas City.
Pepper, A. A., Palmyra.
Perry, W. N., St. Louis.
Pierce, E. S., Kansas City.
Pierce, Mrs. E. S., Kansas City.
Pierce, H. T., Kansas City.
Pierce, Mrs. H. T., Kansas City.
Pike, D. W., Kansas City.
Pipor, C. J., Kansas City.
Pipor, Mrs. C. J., Kansas City.
Pitt, Mrs. F. G., Independence.
Pitt, Will, Independence.
Powell, W. A., Kansas City.
Powers, Jno., St. Joseph.
Powers, Mrs. Jno., St. Joseph.
Prentis, Heming, St. Louis.
Puriton, Geo. D., Columbia.
Pursell, Mrs. A. B., Kansas City.
Quinlivan, Mary, St. Louis.
Ransom, C. E., Kansas City.
Ransom, W. M., Carthage.
Rawson, Albert, St. Louis.
Read, W. M., Kansas City.
Reed, L. W., Kansas City.
Reinhalt, J. W., St. Louis.
Reithmiller, L., Kansas City.
Reller, Ed., St. Louis.
Reynolds, C. B., Clinton.
Reynolds, Mrs. C. B., Clinton.
Rice, Chas., Kansas City.
Richardson, B. F., Sedalia.
Richardson, Geo. M., Kansas City.
Richardson, Louise, Maxville.
Richardson, William, Sedalia.
Richel, Mrs. J. B., Kansas City.
Riggles, W. A., Kansas City.
Riley, Mrs. J. B., Clinton.
Riley, Lillie E., St. Louis.
Rishel, A. C., Joplin
Rishel, Mrs. A. C., Joplin.
Roeder, Lizzie, St. Louis.
Rohman, C. E., Kansas City.
Root, J. A., Kansas City.
Samuels, H., Kansas City.
Schloss, Aaron, St. Joseph.
Schoen, Geo., Kansas City.
Schranck, Rosa, St. Joseph.
Schroeder, D., Kansas City.
Schultz, H. E., Jefferson City.
Schwier, Vic., St. Joseph.
Scott, C. W., St. Joseph.
Scott, Mrs. C. W., St. Joseph.
Seaman, Mrs. L., St. Joseph.
Sears, W. G., Jefferson City.
Seeley, H. J. S., Kansas City.
Seeley, Mrs. H. J. S., Kansas City.
Sendig, Mrs. R., Kansas City.
Seymour, A. J., St. Louis.
Shepherd, Mrs. Alice, La Grange.
Shielman, Hannah, St. Louis.
Shielman, Kate, St. Louis.
Shoup, C. A., St. Joseph.
Simon, E. H., Kansas City.
Small, May, Sedalia.
Smeltzer, D. E., Kansas City.
Smith, Grace, Kansas City.
Smith, M., Kansas City.
Smith, M. M., Kansas City.
Smith, Sutie, Sedalia.
Smith, T. Berry, Fayette.
Snow, B., Kansas City.
Spalding, G. M., St. Louis.
Spears, Maggie, Lexington.
Spenser, Kate, Kansas City.
Stacey, B., St. Joseph.
Stafford, A. M., Sedalia.
Stafford, E. M., Sedalia.
Stambaugh, Effie, Trenton.
Stanley, J. F., Princeton.
Steen, V. E., Kansas City.
Steen, Mrs. V. E., Kansas City.
Steinacker, C. F., St. Joseph.
Stephan, Geo., St. Louis.
Stephens, Maggie, Mt. Leonard.
Stephens, Rhoda E., Mt. Leonard.
Stephens, Verena, Mt. Leonard.
Stevens, B. C., Winiston.
Stevens, Bessie, Winiston.
Stewart, C. H., Liberal.
Stewart, W. C., St. Joseph.
Stock, Lulu, Sedalia.
Stoneman, E. C., Cameron.
Strickler, M. H., Sedalia.
Strong, Homer, Kansas City.
Strotton, O. S., Kansas City.
Stump, J. W., Whitewater.
Sturtevant, Mrs. S. B., Sedalia.
Sutemeister, J., Kansas City.
Swanson, Nora, St. Joseph.
Sweet, Mrs. C., St. Louis.

MISSOURI. (*Continued.*)

Swenson, Marie, St. Joseph.
Swisher, Mattie, Warrensburgh.
Talbot, J. T., St. Louis.
Taylor, Mrs. E., Palmyra.
Taylor, Wm. A., Kansas City.
Taylor, Wm. T., Kansas City.
Tegen, Heinreich, St. Louis.
Tovell, A., St. Louis.
Townsley, Geo., Sedalia.
Townsley, Mrs. Geo., Sedalia.
Towser, Geo. M., Kansas City.
Thomas, C. C., St. Louis.
Thomas, J., Kansas City.
Thomas, W. L., St. Louis.
Thompson, Maud, Kansas City.
Thompson, Geo. R., Kansas City.
Thorpe, F. D., Kansas City.
Timmons, Jennie, Kansas City.
Tinges, Frank, Kansas City.
Tinges, Mrs. M. C., Kansas City.
Troxel, Clara, King City.
Tuttle, T. M., Kansas City.
Tuttle, Mrs. T. B., Carthage.
Twiff, Stephen T., Kansas City.
Underwood, St. Louis.
Vandiver, W. D., Caledonia.
Vandiver, Mrs. W. D., Caledonia.
Van Wagner, Ernest, Sedalia.
Van Wagner, W. H., Sedalia.
Van Wagner, Mrs. W. H., Sedalia.
Vamatta, F. F., St. Joseph.
Vamatta, Mrs. F. F., St. Joseph.
Vaughan, Jennie, Kansas City.
Vey, John, St. Joseph.
Vissing, E. S., St. Joseph.
Wachtel, H. H., St. Louis.
Wade, C. S., Kansas City.
Wade, Mrs., Kansas City.
Waldo, David, Westport.
Wallace, Edith, Kansas City.
Wallace, M. T., St. Louis.
Wallis, S. A., Kansas City.
Wannal, Della, St. Louis.
Warner, Abe, Kansas City.
Weaver, Willis, King City.
Wees, E., Joplin.
Weikedy, G. E., Kansas City.
Welborn, E. Alice, Allville.
Werst, Chas., St. Joseph.
West, B. D., Kansas City.
West, Chas. E., Sedalia.
Westheimer, F., St. Joseph.
Westheimer, Mrs. F., St. Joseph.
Westheimer, J. J., St. Louis.
Wetmore, Octavia, St. Louis.
Wheeler, A. J., Kansas City.
Wheeler, Albert, Kansas City.
White, Mary, Pleasant Hill.
White, Thos. W., Kansas City.
White, W. W., St. Louis.
Wickersham, Jno. T., Clinton.
Wilcox, W. H., St. Louis.
Wildman, Della, La Belle.
Wilk, W., Concordia.
Wilk, Mrs. W., Concordia.
Willcox, Mrs. J. B., Sedalia.
Williams, E. J., St. Louis.
Williams, O. H., St. Louis.
Wolf, C. J., Kansas City.
Wolf, S., Kansas City.
Wolfe, Lloyd E., Moberly.
Wollfeld, O. W., Kansas City.
Wood, B. E., Cherryville.
Wood, Lillian, Maryville.
Woodson, B. L., Kansas City.
Woodson, S. H., Independence.
Woodward, Clara L., St. Louis.
Woodward, C. M., Kansas City.
Wright, C. M., Kansas City.
Wright, Gertrude, St. Louis.
Wright, M., Kansas City.
Young, J. B., Kansas City.
Young, S. M., Warrensburgh.
Zimmerman, U. J., Warrensburgh.

NEBRASKA.

Abbott, C. A., Manchester.
Abbott, Emma J., Lincoln.
Albright, R. S., Beatrice.
Allen, H. A., Atkinson.
Allen, H. H., Omaha.
Allen, Lizzie, Omaha.
Allen, Mrs. M. B. Y., Utica.
Alley, Mrs. M. C., Arapahoe.
Allison, Alta, Hastings.
Allison, F., Hastings.
Anderson, A., Holdredge.
Anderson, Margaret, Central City.
Andrews, W. E., Hastings.
Andrews, Mrs. W. E., Hastings.
Appleget, Mary L., Lincoln.
Arnold, Jessie, Blue Hill.
Arnold, Nettie M., Blue Hill.
Ashford, Theresa, Home.
Ashman, Helen, Weeping Water.
Athey, Alex., Norfolk.
Atwood, May, Omaha.
Baker, C., Omaha.
Baker, George D., Beatrice.
Barbour, Mary, Wayne.
Barnes, A., Lincoln.
Barnes, E. A., Lincoln.
Barnes, F. G., Omaha.
Bartenbach, H., Grand Island.
Baughman, G. H., Lincoln.
Beald, J. W., Omaha.
Beale, Daniel A., Hastings.
Beale, Minnie, Hastings.

NEBRASKA. (*Continued.*)

Bean, Mary, Exeter.
Beardsley, Alice M., Lincoln.
Bechtleheimer, G. W., Ayr.
Bechtleheimer, Mrs. G. W., Ayr.
Bechtleheimer, Mrs. L. S., Juniata.
Beckman, Julius, Fremont.
Beecher, H. P., Kearney.
Bell, F. O., York.
Bennett, Eliza, Shelby.
Bennett, J. C, Shelby.
Bennett, L. D., Shelby.
Bergman, Solomon, Omaha.
Berthold, H., Omaha.
Black, W. N., Fremont.
Blackburn, Minnie, York.
Blake, H. N., Beatrice.
Blake, Mrs. H. N. Beatrice.
Bonner, Wm. T., Omaha.
Boothwell, J. L., Albany.
Bossford, J., Lincoln.
Bower, A. G., Ulysees.
Brady, Kittie, Albion.
Brandt, Emma, Omaha.
Brandt, M., Omaha.
Breevort, Mattie, Lincoln.
Bright, C. E., Omaha.
Brindley, C. A., Columbus.
Brown, George L., Hastings.
Bruce, Emily F., Hastings.
Brunner, Will B., Rising City.
Bryant, W. H., Fremont.
Buck, E. A., Bellwood.
Buck, Mrs. M. C., Bellwood.
Buman, A. M., Omaha.
Burke Rosa, Hastings.
Burke, J. H., St. Paul.
Burke, Mrs. J. H., St. Paul.
Burke, William, Friend.
Burnett, Mary, Geneva.
Burnett, Mary T., Grand Island.
Burns, H., Omaha.
Burroughs, Jessie, Fremont.
Burton, G. G., Trenton.
Butler, L. W., Veda.
Butler, Willis, Ashland.
Buzzell, Mrs. Abbie, Plattsmouth.
Byorth, Emily, Fremont.
Caddick, W. A., Albion.
Caddon, Charles M., Lincoln.
Cameron, C. D., Omaha.
Campbell, A. T., Nebraska City.
Carter, Thomas, O'Neil.
Carter, Mrs. C. N., Lincoln.
Cash, A., Rising City.
Cash, L., Rising City.
Chadwick, David, Omaha.
Chamberlain, Mrs. H. W., Omaha.
Churchill, Hawley, Ewing.
Clark, James, Rushville.
Clark, William G., Lincoln.
Clarke, H. J., Hastings.
Clarke, Mary M., Lincoln.
Cleveland, F. C., Ord.
Cline, C. C., Hastings.
Cline, Mrs. C. C., Hastings.
Clippinger, E. E., Omaha.
Coble, C. C., York.
Coble, Mrs. C. C., York.
Cole, E. E., Grand Island.
Cole, Mrs. E. E., Grand Island.
Colmand, H. M., Utica.
Coming, C. P., Lincoln.
Connell, Ida, Grand Island.
Connell, R., Grand Island.
Connell, W. J., Omaha.
Cook, A., Beatrice.
Cook, E. C., Beatrice.
Cook, Kate, David City.
Cook, W. J., Blair.
Cooper, Clare T., Omaha.
Copeland, S. E., Minden.
Cord, May, Hastings.
Cory, Mary J., Shelby.
Cowell, W. M., York.
Cowen, O. P., Chester.
Cox, A. N., Hastings.
Cox, E. F., Hastings.
Cox, Mary, Hastings.
Crawford, H. M., Wayne.
Crawford, Nora, Wayne.
Croft, W. R., Omaha.
Crossby, Jno. L., Holdredge.
Cunningham, M., Alexandria.
Curry, Mrs. Robert, Palmyra.
Curtis, M. C., Lincoln.
Curtis, T. J., Lincoln.
Cushman, S. W., Blair.
Cushman, Mrs. S. W., Blair.
Damrow, C. F., Lincoln.
Damrow, Rachael, Lincoln.
Daniels, J. A., Hastings.
Date, E. T., Omaha.
Davidson, Carrie W., Stromsburgh.
Davidson, L. D., Stromsburgh.
Davis, James, Omaha.
Davis, Jennie, Hastings.
Davis, Margaret, Lincoln.
Davisman, Mrs. J. D., Omaha.
Decker, Carrie E., Crete.
DeLamater, E. B., Fremont.
Dempster, C. B., Beatrice.
Dickey, George W., Seward.
Dickson, Mary C., Omaha.
Dinsmore, Miss, Hastings.
Doane, M. A., Crete.
Dole, C. H., Omaha.
Doolittle, Fred, Lincoln.
Doolittle, Mrs. Jno., Lincoln.
Dorley, H. B., Hastings.
Doty, H. B., Ulysees.
Downey, Nancy, Exeter.
Downey, William, Exeter.
Duff, N. A., Nebraska City.
Duft, Fannie, Minden.
Dunn, M. E., Alexander.
Eckardt, C. B., Lincoln.
Edee, C. F., Pawnee City.
Edgerly, A. S., Lincoln.

NEBRASKA. (*Continued.*)

Edgren, A. H., Lincoln.
Edwards, H. A., Grand Island.
Edwards, Mrs H. A., Grand Island.
Eldredge, M. J , Lincoln.
Eldridge, L. W., Fairbury.
Eldridge, Mrs. L. W., Fairbury.
Elliot, F., Hebron.
Erickson, Mrs. M., Schuyler.
Evans, Ida M., Grand Island.
Eveleth, Susie E., Omaha.
Faas, Catharine, Omaha.
Farnham, George M., Peru.
Farnham, Mrs. George, Peru.
Felker, Mrs. F. O., Omaha.
Felker, Mrs. S. S., Omaha.
Ferry, A. M . Long Pine.
Fetcher, R. R., Blair.
Fetcher. Mrs. R. R., Blair.
Fishbough, A. W., Lincoln.
Fisher, S. E., Fairmount.
Fisher, W. G., Falls City.
Fitch, Mrs. Alma J., Hastings.
Fitch, H. C., Hastings.
Fitzgerald, W. C., Lincoln.
Fletcher, W. O., Lincoln.
Flory, F. M., Geneva.
Flory, Wm , Ft. Edwards.
Forbes, Jno. A., Beatrice.
Foreman, Charles, Hebron.
Foreman, Mrs. Charles, Hebron.
Foreman, J. Boyd, North Bend.
Foster, Mrs. C. L., Hastings.
Fowle, E. H., Falls City.
Fowler, P. W., Hastings.
Franklin, David, Fremont.
French, J. D., Friend.
Frincke, Mrs. M., Lincoln.
Frohlich, Henry, Nebraska City.
Fry, R. L., Beatrice.
Fuller, Mrs. L. E., Crete.
Funkhauser, M. F., Omaha.
Galvin, T. R., Burnett.
Gast, William, De Witt.
Gates, L. H., Central City.
Geiger, W. S., Grand Island.
George, C. E., Davenport.
George, Mrs. C. E., Davenport.
Gerrard, F. A., Oconee.
Gibson, George E., Omaha.
Gibson, Mrs. H. P., Rising City.
Gibson, Mrs. J., Hastings.
Gilkeson, Ida M., Wahoo.
Gillis, Mary, Greenwood.
Glantz, George, Lincoln.
Goddard, William A., Omaha.
Gould, M., Omaha.
Grant, H. L., Peru.
Graves, A. H., Central City.
Gregory, W. J., Arapahoe.
Green, Warren, York.
Greenlee, Ida K., Omaha.
Greenslit, Mrs. J. H., Surprise.
Griffin, C. B., Lincoln.
Grinninger, J. B., Red Cloud.
Gross, J. G., Omaha.
Gunther, Mrs., Albion.
Gustine, Mrs. W. F., Friend.
Haff, L. H., Grand Island.
Hahn, Marion, Albion.
Hall, Robert. Cambridge.
Hammond, Nettie E., Valpariso.
Hanson, Mads, Lincoln.
Hanson, Mary, Omaha.
Hansou, C. E., Kearney.
Harbough, Flora H., Geneva.
Hardy, W. E., Lincoln.
Harris, Hannah, Central City.
Harrison, F. B., Fremont.
Harrison, Helen, York.
Harrison, Kate, York.
Harrison, Vinnie, York.
Harron, O., Beatrice.
Hart, E. B., Omaha.
Hartley, E. T., Lincoln.
Hartley, Lou P., Lincoln.
Hasterlick, S., Omaha.
Hastings, E. C., Arcadia.
Hastings, Mrs. E. C., Arcadia.
Hayden, J. T., Lincoln.
Hayes, S. S., Beatrice.
Haynes, Nancy, Beatrice.
Hemmamsey, W. G., Omaha.
Hempel, Max, Omaha.
Herbertz, Mrs., Omaha.
Herrick, Emma, Lincoln.
Hess, Mrs. Kate. Ulysses.
Hewitt, O. B., Hastings.
Hicks, H. T , Blue Hill.
High, Jane, Table Rock.
Hill, M. W., Omaha.
Hill, S. D., Blue Hill.
Hill, S. Y., Beatrice.
Hirsby, J. H., Brock Bow.
Hitchcock, Mamie, Lincoln.
Hitchcock, Martha L., Lincoln.
Hodgeman, T. M., Lincoln.
Hodgman, Jennie S., Lincoln.
Holst, Anna, Omaha.
Hoobler, G. W., Omaha.
Hoonberger, J. A., Fremont.
Hosea, Martha, Pawnee City.
Howard, W. T., Schuyler.
Howick, M., Omaha.
Hayden, Wm., Omaha.
Huddlestore, R. H., Omaha.
Hughes, A. B., Schuyler.
Hughes, Mrs. J. H., Ravenna.
Hulse, E. M., Omaha.
Hurford, Mary, Grand Island.
Hurlburt, Charles, Fairbury.
Hyatt, C. D., Lincoln.
Hyman, Louis H., Lincoln.
Iler, J. D., Omaha.
Ingalls, C. F., Long Pine.
Jackson, A. L., Fairmount.
Jackson, Eloise, Fairmount.
Jacobs, Philip, Lincoln.
Jameson, Nettie, Central City.

NEBRASKA. *(Continued.)*

Jamieson, Gavin, Omaha.
Jamieson, N. Jennie, McCook.
Jenkins, E. N., N. Platte.
Jenkins, Fred. E., Cedar Rapids.
Johnson, I. H., Lincoln.
Johnson, J. R., Creighton.
Jones, C. L., Hastings.
Jones, E. W., David City.
Jones, W. W. W., Lincoln.
Judson, Vasti, Grand Island.
Kates, John F., Ord.
Kaufman, Ella, Lincoln.
Keller, G., Fremont.
Kenney, J. Robert, Wahoo.
Kenney, Maggie T., Wahoo.
Kerr, Wm., Hastings.
Kerr, Mrs. Wm., Hastings.
Kesstner, Elizabeth, Hastings.
Kidder, Laura, Norfolk.
Kimball, E. M., Omaha.
Kimball, M. H., Hastings.
King, A. J., Fairbury.
Kinney, E. M., Lincoln.
Kirchman, F. J., Wahoo.
Kirker, W. E., Lincoln.
Knapp, Jno. S., Nebraska City.
Knight, T. H. H., Crete.
Knudson, Erik, Lincoln.
Kuenne, Geo., Omaha.
Kurke, Mrs., Grand Island.
Ladd, Mrs. H. S., Rising City.
Laing, R., Omaha.
Laing, Mrs., Omaha.
Lamhofer, Mrs. E., Schuyler.
Lamkin, A. M., Shelby.
Lane, Geo. B., Lincoln.
Lane, Nellie N., Lincoln.
Larson, Mrs. A., Fremont.
Larson, L. P., Fremont.
Larson, Lydia, Fremont.
Lasbury, G. B., Omaha.
Lawrence, Aida, Omaha.
Lawrence, F. N., Nebraska.
Lawton, Mary, Grand Island.
Leach, Anna E., Elk City.
Lear, R. J., Central City.
Lee, C. E., Omaha.
LeFevre, Mrs. S. E., Hastings.
Lehman, A., Omaha.
Leith, Grace, North Bend.
Leith, Lillie, North Bend.
Lesage, Sophie, Lincoln.
Lewis, Belle, Omaha.
Lewis, Homer P., Omaha.
Lewis, N. L., Omaha.
Lewis, W. T., Lincoln.
Lidell, Geo. W., Albion.
Littler, I. R., Harvard.
Littler, Mrs. I. R., Harvard.
Lloyd, J. C., Lincoln.
Lollenburgers, M. L., Beatrice.
Lombard, Mrs. O. M., Juniata.
Lonergan, Mrs. S. J., Broken Bow.
Lucas, C. Y., Omaha.
Luck, C. B., Lincoln.
Lucke, Mrs., Omaha.
Lundgrun, F. O., Omaha.
McChesney, Tudie E., Fullerton.
McClellen, R. A., Hastings.
McCullom, E. M., Omaha.
McDerby, L., Winside.
McDonald, F. E, Lincoln.
McDougall, C. A., Friend.
McDougall, Elma, Dorchester.
McDougall, L. C., Friend.
McGee, F. M., St. Edward.
McGee, Mrs. F. M., St. Edward.
McGuire, J., Blaire.
McKay, A. S., Friend.
McKinzie, J. C., North Platte.
McKoon, J. M., Omaha.
McKoon, M. G., Omaha.
McKoon, Mrs. M. G., Omaha.
McMasters, Minnie, Beatrice.
Madden, F. A., Omaha.
Madison, J. L., Fairmount.
Mahler, Jacob, Lincoln.
Mahler, Mrs. Sadie, Lincoln.
Maine, A. W., Ulysses.
Mann, S. R., Lincoln.
Mann, Mrs. S. R., Lincoln.
Mansfield, G. W., Omaha.
Mark, J. G., Omaha.
Marquis, E. E., Hastings.
Marquis, Jas., Hastings.
Marsh, J. M., Guide Rock.
Marshall, J. A., Lincoln.
Matheson, Margaret, Pilger.
Mattico, R. I., Omaha.
Mattico, Mrs., Omaha.
Meagher, M. C., Hastings.
Meagher, Mrs. M. C., Hastings.
Melick, S. M., Lincoln.
Meservey, H. E., Blair.
Mess, Maria M., Falls City.
Messenbach, Amelia, Wilber.
Metcalf, La Fayette, York.
Meyers, Chas., Lincoln.
Midgley, Mrs. L., Omaha.
Miller, C. W., Beatrice.
Miller, J. C., Lincoln.
Miller, M., Beatrice.
Miller, R. D., Lincoln.
Miller, Sarah, David City.
Mills, G. F., Omaha.
Miner, W. B., Rising City.
Mitchell, Mrs., Red Cloud.
Montgomery, E., York.
Morgan, F. C., Omaha.
Morse, W. R., Clarks.
Moyer, Chas. E., Omaha.
Muffitt, E. E., Omaha.
Munger, Huldah, Fairbury.
Muth, Geo., Hebron.
Muth, Hester, Hebron.
Myers, Hiram, Lincoln.
Maygatt, Mrs. H. C., Virginia City.
Neill, Robt T., Omaha.

NEBRASKA. (*Continued.*)

Nelson, Daniel, Nebraska City.
Nelson, Geo., Nebraska City.
Nelson, Mrs., Lincoln.
Nelson, Wm., Nebraska City.
Nelson, Mrs. Wm., Nebraska City.
Newman, J., Omaha.
Newman, W. C., Lincoln.
Nichol, J. A., Omaha.
Nichols, Paul S., Lincoln.
Nicholson, D. P., York.
Noleman, R. C., Hay Springs.
Olmstead, S. H., Hastings.
Orbeton, M. A., Albion.
Orlup, B., Omaha.
Palmanteer, W. G., O'Neil.
Palmer, J. M., Ulysses.
Palmer, Mrs. J. M., Ulysses.
Palmer, Mary E., Minden.
Palmer, Rush H., Minden.
Palmer, W. C., Omaha.
Parish, J. D., Lincoln.
Parker, M. J., Crab Orchard.
Patrick, A. S., Grand Island.
Perkins, F. E., Lincoln.
Peterson, A., Omaha.
Peterson, E. A., Wakefield.
Pettys, D. H., Beatrice.
Phelps, Nettie, Omaha.
Plummer, Emily, Maxwell.
Pond, D. W., Fremont.
Pond, Mrs. D. W., Fremont.
Pope, J. D., Friend.
Post, Delia C., Lincoln.
Powell, Mattie, Omaha.
Pratt, H. H., Fremont.
Pratt, Hattie C., Omaha.
Pratt, Jane A., Lincoln.
Pratt, M. B., Lincoln.
Price, H. D., Aurora.
Pruyn, L. P., Omaha.
Rainbolt, C. S., York.
Rainbolt, Florence, York.
Randall, F. M., Ord.
Randall, H. J., Beatrice.
Randall, M., Ord.
Rawles, J. W., Rising City.
Ray, A., Omaha.
Ray, B., Omaha.
Ray, E., Omaha.
Rechcygal, A., Wahoo.
Redfield, Jennie L., Omaha.
Reed, C., Beatrice.
Reed, H. S., Lincoln.
Reinhar, Bertha, Omaha.
Reinheimer, Peter, Rising City.
Richards, Annie, Omaha.
Richards, L. C., Lincoln.
Richards, Mrs. L. C., Lincoln.
Richards, Mabel, Lincoln.
Richmond, May, Utica.
Riley, J. E., Omaha.
Rising, S. H., Lincoln.
Robinson, Fannie, Omaha.
Rogers, S. P., Exeter.
Ross, L. R., Central City.
Ross, O. F., Welbourn.
Rossiter, Mrs. Isabella, Emerson.
Rubatlon, L. H., Exeter.
Ruby, D. G., Helene.
Ryons, Joseph, L., Lincoln.
Ryons, Mrs. R. J., Lincoln.
Sabin, C. O., Schuyler.
Sandford, C. W., Wahoo.
Sandrock, E., Exeter.
Sandrock, Mrs. E., Exeter.
Sapp, W. R., Wilcox.
Sawyer, W. S., Lincoln.
Scammell, B. J., Omaha.
Schoepley, J. W., Omaha.
Schraming, Lee, Grand Island.
Scott, Alice F., Pawnee City.
Scott, Anna M., Pawnee City.
Scott, Edna F., Lincoln.
Scott, Juliet, Pawnee City.
Sedgwick, A. H., York.
Sedgwick, J., York.
Senger, E. J., Ashland.
Sexton, J. B., Geneva.
Sexton, Mrs. J. B., Geneva.
Shea, Jas. G., Omaha.
Sheely, J. T., Omaha.
Sheely, Nellie, Omaha.
Shephard, Mrs. K. A., Grand Island.
Sherman, L. A., Lincoln.
Sherman, Mrs. L. A., Lincoln.
Sherwood, C. W., Ulysses.
Sigafras, C. A., Fremont.
Slock, A. W., Omaha.
Smith, Chas. E., Beatrice.
Smith, D. H., Beatrice.
Smith, E. C., York.
Smith, Mrs. H. L., York.
Smith, K. E., Omaha.
Smith, Margaret, Beatrice.
Smith, P., Omaha.
Smith, W., Lincoln.
Sned, A. C., Lincoln.
Sned, Mrs. A. C., Lincoln.
Snider, Patt, Lincoln.
Sohus, O. W., Weeping Water.
Sonnerschien, S., Omaha.
Spaids, Mrs. C. C., Kearney.
Sparks, Mary E., Valentine.
Spelts, Geo. R., Schuyler.
Spencer, Geo. J., Grand Island.
Spickler, L. D., Hemmingford.
Spickler, Mrs., Hemmingford.
Spitzer, A. E., Lincoln.
Squire, Hattie M., Grand Island.
Stanley, J. M., Hebron.
Starr, Mary, Beatrice.
Stecking, L. T., Lincoln.
Stein, F. C., Minden.
Stem, Harry, Holdridge.
Stemdis, W. J., Wahoo.
Sterm, M., Hastings.
Sterm, Mrs. M., Hastings.
Stevens, Mrs. C. L., Lincoln.

NEBRASKA. (*Continued.*)

Stevens, H. H., Omaha.
Stevens, Mary M., Lincoln.
Stevens, F. C., Lincoln.
Stenson, Lida, Kearney.
Stocking, Edith, Northfield.
Stokes, Chas., Wymon.
Stone, Cora J., Crab Orchard.
Stone, Ira G., Wahoo.
Storey, Jno. D., Red Cloud.
Strasser, Blanche, McCook.
Strasser, S., McCook.
Strickland, D. L., Wayne.
Strickland, Mrs. D. L., Wayne.
Strock, Anna K., Peru.
Strotner, G. W., Endicott.
Swan, C. B., Fremont.
Swan, Mrs. C. B., Fremont.
Swan, M. O., Omaha.
Switzer, J. V., Fairbury.
Taggart, May H., Lincoln.
Taussig, Wm., Omaha.
Taylor, G. L., Lincoln.
Taylor, J. W., Exeter.
Taylor, Maggie, Exeter.
Taylor, Paulina. Exeter.
Taylor, W. Edgar, Peru.
Taylor, Mrs. W. E., Peru.
Tenney, H. A., Fremont.
Terhune, John, Beatrice.
Terry, B. L., Strang.
Test, L. A., York.
Test, Luella, York.
Thomas, A. S., York.
Thomas, L. L., Omaha.
Thomas, M., Omaha.
Thrailkill, M. E., Lincoln.
Tibbetts, Anna, Lincoln.
Tinbrock, Milly, Hebron.
Tirrell, Minot, Omaha.
Tirrell, Thos. B., Schuyler.
Tolles, May M., Grafton.
Trowbridge, Mrs. Emma, Schuyler.
Truland, Anna P., Omaha.
Tynon, Mrs. Wm., Peru.
Valentine, W., Nebraska City.
Vance, B. F., York.
Vance, Lon, York.
Vandenburg, Mrs. L. H., Omaha.
Vanderman, Edna D., Ashland.
Vanderman, John D., Ashland.
Vanderman, Mrs. John D., Ashland.
Van Eaton, J. S., Fairmont.
Van Gooden, J. W., Ulysses.
Van Patten, F M., Tobias.
Vars, John T., Pawnee City.
Viele, May M., Lincoln.
Vroom, A. B., Albion.
Vroom, Emma, Albion.
Voss, L. D., Fremont.
Walden, Mrs. M. A., Beatrice.
Walker, W. C., David City.
Walker, Mrs. W. C., David City.
Walther, G. A., Beatrice.
Walton, Mrs. Z., Beatrice.
Waughop, Mrs. H. L., Madison.
Weidler, Fannie, Omaha.
Wedgewood, Geo. S., Lincoln.
Welling, M., Omaha.
Wellington, A. G., Omaha.
Wentz, Emma, Sutton.
Wilcox, Chas. E., Rising City.
Wilcox, Mrs. Chas. E., Rising City.
Wilcox, E. M., Lincoln.
Wilder, Jno. S., Wahoo.
Williams, Grace, Omaha.
Williams, L. B., Omaha.
Williams, Mary. Omaha.
Williams, T. O., Blue Hill.
Wilson, Eliza, Ulysses.
Wilson, P., Lincoln.
Wily, H. Fred., Kearney.
Winfrey. E. E., Dayton.
Wiswell, O. N., Beatrice.
Witherspoon, J. K., Fremont.
Woodman, Clark, Omaha.
Woodward, M. N., Grand Island.
Wright, H. C., Schuyler.
Wright, J. B., Lincoln.
Young, Mary F. S., Beatrice.
Yund, J. H., Grand Island.

NEVADA.

Davies, Mary E., Carson City.
LaFabre, Jno., Rapid City.
Lewers, Robert, Dayton.
McDonald, F. P., Gold Hill.
Ring, Orvis, Reno.
Young, Chas. S., Reno.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Abbot, Fred. F., Nashua.
Boynton, C. C., Lebanon.
Cook, Cora B., Nashua.
Cook, C. S., Hanover.
Cook, Ella M., Nashua.
Cooper, Martha, Concord.
Dickey, Nellie, Derry.
Durgin, H. F., Concord.
Gilbert, J. Franklin.
Gilbert, Mrs. J., Franklin.
Hayes, F. A., Conway.
Leighton, Ira, Laconia.
Leighton, M. A., Laconia.
Manix, Bessie, Exeter.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. (*Continued*).

Moses, George, Portsmouth.
Moses, Mrs. F., Portsmouth.
Padgett, Percival, Concord.
Parsons, Mary M., Derry.
Purmort, Mrs. L. B., Meriden.
Robinson, W. A., Franklin Falls.
Rounds, C. C., Plymouth.
Rounds, Mrs. C. C., Plymouth.
Sayer, Netta, Dover.

NEW JERSEY.

Ames, Dan. P., Elizabeth.
Ames, Fannie L., Elizabeth.
Apgar, Emily, Ocean Port.
Apgar, L. V. D., Ocean Port.
Child, Sadie J., Red Bank.
Clark, Joseph, Newark.
Cutts, W. D., Orange.
Cutts, Mrs. W. D., Orange.
Dearborn, Jane B., Orange.
Donkerslay, Metta, Patterson.
Dunbar, John B., Bloomfield.
Edson, A. W., Jersey City.
Field, Mary C., Long Branch.
Frost, J. M., Jersey City.
Giffin, W. N., Newark.
Hall, L. C., Lawrenceville.
Lindsley, Lora A., Brick Church.
Mason, M. R., Orange.
Miller, Annie M., Newark.
Pease, N. W., Elizabeth.
Sensor, T. D., Millville.
Swan, Mary E., E. Orange.
Tunison, W. T., Patterson.

NEW YORK.

Alden, F. M., New York.
Aldrich, Thos. B., Great Neck.
Allen, Jerome, Brooklyn.
Allen, Miss A. C., Brooklyn.
Allis, Lizzie May, Prattsburg.
Anna, Geo. C., New York.
Anna, Marie S., New York.
Arrowsmith, Robt., New York.
Atwood, Mrs. Anna M., New York.
Babcock, L., New York.
Baird, Carl, Buffalo.
Baker, C. P., New York.
Baker, C. O., New York.
Bardeen, C. W., Syracuse.
Barker, E. Day, Brooklyn.
Beale, Abbie N., New York.
Beale, Elizabeth N., New York.
Beebe, Ellen F., Cazenoria.
Beech, David, New York.
Beer, Amy G., Brooklyn.
Beer, Edith C., Brooklyn.
Bennett, Mary E., Brooklyn.
Berwick, Lu, New York.
Bessey, Nellie M., Brooklyn.
Birkholz, Jas. A., Buffalo.
Brown, Margaret A., Albany.
Brown, S. N., Silver Creek.
Burdick, Felicia H., St. Jackson.
Burr, Mrs. C. A., Oswego.
Burwell, T., Yonkers.
Butler, Nicholas Murray, New York.
Calkins, Ella, New York.
Campbell, Mabel, Cohoes.
Carey, R. F., New York.
Carlin, Mary A., Caledonica.
Carlin, Thos. A., Caledonica.
Cassidy, Anna L., Albany.
Chapman, R. Belle, Newburgh.
Church, Maria P., Syracuse.
Clark, Emma C., Melrose.
Clark, Jemmie L., New York.
Clark, Mary H., Melrose.
Cobb, Emeline, Catskill.
Coe, T. L., Brooklyn.
Colby, E. C., Rochester.
Comings, Mamie S., Brooklyn.
Comings, Jenny L., S. Brooklyn.
Conner, E. M., Buffalo.
Cook, E. H., Potsdam.
Cooper, M. S., Oswego.
Corey, E. D., Syracuse.
Croby, Abby, Syracuse.
Dailey, M., Castile.
Davis, Flora S., New York.
Dexter, E. W., Elmira.
Drumgold, Eva A., New York.
Dumphy, J. E., Utica.
Dumphy, M. L., Utica.
Dunn, Anna V., Syracuse.
Dwyer, Jno., New York.
Elling, Mary E., New York.
Ellsworth, H. W., New York.
Ellsworth, J. F., Buffalo.
Ferguson, Madge, Buffalo.
Fisher, Amelia A., Syracuse.
Fisher, Mary E., Syracuse.
Forester, Edward, New York.
Forshay, Jas. A., Carmel.
Frost, Mrs. E. E., Rochester.
Geer, Mary E., New York.
Gillette, H. F., Buffalo.
Gilman, B. A., Woodbury.
Goetschins, James, New York.
Goetschins, Kate, New York.
Goodall, L. E., New York.
Green, J. A., New York.

NEW YORK (*Continued.*)

Hanaford, L. B., Brooklyn.
Hambinger, Isabella, Brooklyn.
Hanaway, Emily S., New York.
Hargraves, J. H., New York.
Harrison, Thos. F., New York.
Hawkins, E. J., Buffalo.
Hoag, Emma, Utica.
Hogan, Eleanor, Syracuse.
Hogan, Mary C., Rochester.
Holley, Adeline, New York.
Hogan, J. R., New York.
Hubbard, H. W., New York.
Hulse, C. B., New York.
Ives, Nellie, Little Falls.
Johnson, John, New York.
Jones, Essie, New York.
Jones, Wm. M., New York.
Kellogg, Hattie M., Castile.
Kelly, Mrs. E. C., Rochester.
Kenyon, Ellen E., Brooklyn.
Kenyon, O. W., Syracuse.
Kenyon, Mrs. O. W., Syracuse.
Kones, Elizabeth L., New York.
Landon, Chas. W., Claverack.
Landon, Mrs Chas. W., Claverack.
Latimer, E. H., Lima.
Latimer, Mrs. E. H., Lima.
Leipziger, Henry M., New York.
Lewis, Burr, Lockport.
Lincoln, Samantha, Syracuse.
Littie, A. M., New York.
Lomle, H., Rochester.
Lord, Mrs. Asa D., Batavia.
Lovell, A., New York.
Lowell, F. S., Scheneous.
Marteau, R. M., New York.
Martin, Hattie M., Syracuse.
McCabe, Jas. J., Brooklyn.
McCarthy, Mary, New York.
McCarthy, Wm., New York.
McConnell, Alice H, Newburgh.
McKinna, Mara A., Buffalo.
McLarny, Anna, Forestville.
Merrill, B. B., New York.
Merrill, Jennie B., New York.
Merrill, Grace E., Buffalo.
Miller, S. F., New York.
Mills, Ida A, Brooklyn.
Mills, William S., Brooklyn.
Miner, J. P., Sheridan.
Mosher, Sarah E., Canandaigua.
Noble, Mary E., Rochester.
Paddock, Bertha L., Malone.
Patterson, M. J., Rochester.
Peattri, Eva E., Perry.
Penfield, Georgiana May, New York.
Penfield, Mrs. S. N, New York.
Perry, Walter S., Brooklyn.
Peterson, Ida F., Brooklyn.
Phillips, Emily, New York.
Popper, Mrs. C., New York.
Popper, Laura, New York.
Porter, Alice L., Saratoga.
Porter. Augusta, Newburgh.
Power, Mrs. Caroline P., Hudson.
Power, Gussie, Hudson.
Rademacher, Gertie, Norwich.
Rankin, Ella S., Mt. Vernon.
Rankin, Lizzie E., Mt. Vernon.
Reed, Bertha E., Brooklyn.
Reese, Maria H., Buffalo.
Reeves, Emily N., Johnstown.
Reichenbach, F. A., Rochester.
Rideneour, William B., Brooklyn.
Ritchie, F. A., Newburgh.
Roberts, Emma S., New York.
Rockwell, Lewis H., Albany.
Rohda, M. Augusta, New York.
Roney, Mrs. R. W., Syracuse.
Rose, E. M., Rochester.
Rose, Mrs. E. M., Rochester.
Round, R. J., Elmira.
Royce, Harriet T., Fulton.
Ryan, Mary H., Buffalo.
Ryan, Stasia T., Buffalo.
Salt, E. M., Bath.
Schuyler, G. B., New York.
Seely, Chas. D., Brockport.
Sessions, Hattie I., Harford.
Seward, Theodore F., New York.
Shedd, Mrs. Geo. N., Salamanca.
Shendon, Jennie, Albany.
Shepard, Jennie E., Malone.
Silliman, Mabel E., Holland.
Simmons, Juliet M., Buffalo.
Smith, Carrie E., Albany.
Smith, Edward, Syracuse.
Smith, I. Stephen, New York.
Smith, S., Winfield.
Sprague, Homer B., New York.
Sparks, Mrs., Buffalo.
Spooner, Mrs. Jane, Brooklyn.
Strong, Hattie F., Onandoga Valley.
Strong, Mary B., Lansingburgh.
Tainter, Chas. N., New York.
Tait, Mary J., New York.
Tamlin, A. J., Rochester.
Tarbox, Russell L., Batavia.
Teaper, Nettie M., Oswego.
Tooke, Mary E., Rochester.
Tubbs, Mrs. C. E., Fulton.
Tucker, Gilman H., La Fayette.
Turell, Helen L., New York.
Twining, H. E., New York.
Usenbents, Belle S., Syracuse.
Van Antwerp, S., Syracuse.
Van Antwerp, Mrs. M. A., Syracuse.
Vander Voort, Mary W., New York.
Vandoren, Kate V., Nyack.
Van Wyck, Mary, Brooklyn.
Veith, Alexander, New York.
Walsh, Katie E., Buffalo.
Warren, Harry W., Buffalo.
Watkins, Geo. M., Sandy Hill.
Watt, Salina F., Brooklyn.
Weir, Irene, Poughkeepsie.
Whalen, Abbie, Syracuse.
Whalen. Emma T., Batavia.

NEW YORK. *(Continued.)*

Whitaker, Adele L., Saratoga.
Whiting, Caroline T., New York.
Wilson, Geo. W., Brooklyn.
Wilson, Mrs. Geo. W., Brooklyn.
Wood, Jennie, Ft. Edward.
Woods, Elsie M., Lockport.
Woodworth, C., Randolph.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Finger, L. M.
Semple, E. P., Charlotte.

OHIO.

Aborn, Frank, Cleveland.
Adams, Belle K., Cleveland.
Adams, G., Cincinnati.
Adams, G. W,, Tiffin.
Adams, H. C., Toledo.
Adams, J. Q., Cleveland.
Alberte, Lizzie, Chillicothe.
Alley, T. S., New Paris.
Andrews, Mrs. C., Urbana.
Andrews, H. A., Findlay.
Andrews, Israel W., Marietta.
Angle, T. J., Troy.
Arndt, C. H., Sandusky.
Arnold, A. J., Berea.
Arnold, Lila, Berea.
Arrington, J. D., Cincinnati.
Atkins, Kate L., Cincinnati.
Austin, S. P. H. Zanesville.
Baker, Ida L., Woodville.
Baldwin, Eudora, Urbana.
Ballard, Thomas F., Columbus.
Ballanf, Celia, Cincinnati.
Ballhouse, Matilda, Cleveland.
Banhof, Helen, Canton.
Banhof, Lizzie, Canton.
Barney, J. C., Willoughby.
Bates, J. H., Cincinnati.
Batelle, Nellie, Bellaire.
Bell, Anna, Washington C. H.
Bell, Jessie, Washington C. H.
Bender, Chris, Tiffin.
Benedict, G. W., College Corner.
Bennett, W. Z., Wooster.
Berger, Mrs. S. A., Bellevue.
Besudel, W. H., Cincinnati.
Betten, I., Orange City.
Bevinger, Ira M., Middletown.
Bixby, Sarah, Toledo.
Blanchard, W. A., Cincinnati.
Blount, J. A., Springfield.
Boehrne, Emma, Cincinnati.
Booth, Francis, Ashtabula.
Booth, Mary L., Ashtabula.
Bottenus, James, Cincinnati.
Bour, Lizzie, Canton.
Boyd, D. R., Van Wert.
Boyd, Lucy A., Xenia.
Boyd, Maggie, Athens.
Boysell, Etta A., Lima.
Braman S., Massilon.
Brecount, O. S., Conover.
Breimaier, Bertha, Sandusky.
Breimaier, Mary, Sandusky.
Breman, Maggie, Toledo.
Brown, Annie, Cleveland.
Brown, Mattie E., Sidney.
Brown, Olive, Toledo.
Buckman, Ola, Norwalk.
Burke, A. J., Cincinnati.
Burke, Emma, Cincinnati.
Burns, J. F., Dayton.
Burns, R. M., Dayton.
Bussing, Rose, Cincinnati.
Byers, Anna M., Franklin.
Cain, Emma, Tiffin.
Campbell, M. L., Cleveland.
Campbell, M. S., Cleveland.
Campbell, Sarah, Kenton.
Cannon, Dora, Bryan.
Carnaham, Mrs. E. A., Coshocton.
Carnaham, G. A., Cincinnati.
Carothers, Geo. R., Cincinnati,
Chamberlain, W. G., Cleveland.
Chaney, M. H., Washington C. H.
Charles, Bessie, Eaton.
Charles, J. P., Eaton.
Cist, Jennie, Cumminsville.
Claflin, Jeanette, Toledo.
Cleveland, L. M., Berkesville.
Cline, Chas. S., Toledo.
Cochran, Alice, Tippecanoe City.
Cochran, Isadore, Steubenville.
Coleman, Margaret, Xenia.
Cohn, M., Cincinnati.
Collier, Ila, Van Wert.
Collins, C. F., Cincinnati.
Collins, S. A., Xenia.
Comings, A. G., Brooklyn.
Comings, W. R., Norwalk.
Comings, Mrs. W. R., Norwalk.
Compton, Elias, Wooster.
Comrie, Alex., Ada.
Comstock, Mary E., Cleveland.
Connelley, James, Cincinnati.
Conklin, Clara, Delaware.
Conklin, Florence, Sidney.
Conley, Mary, Cincinnati.
Conley, Fannie, Cincinnati.
Cook, J., McArthur.
Cook, Lizzie, Canton.

OHIO. (*Continued.*)

Cope, W. P., Hamilton.
Copper, Mary, Cincinnati.
Corben, Mrs. Anna M., Cincinnati.
Corns, W. J., Springfield.
Corson, O. T., Cambridge.
Coulisk, Ella L., Toledo.
Coulisk, Mildred, Toledo.
Cox, Ella, Cincinnati.
Cox, Edw. B., Xenia.
Cox, Mrs. E. B., Xenia.
Coxen, Q. M., Alliance.
Coy, Mrs. G. L., College Hill.
Crossgraven, M. J., Chillicothe.
Crow, Anna E., Walnut Hill.
Cullin, Katie, Cincinnati.
Cummings, Alice, Cincinnati.
Cunningham, Gertie, Toledo.
Dann, Emma, Sidney.
Darst, Warren, Ada.
Day, J. S., Ada.
Day, L. W., Cleveland.
DeCamp, Julia, Reading.
DeCamp, J. H., Reading.
Deitrick, C. H., Hopkinsville.
De Long, G. W., Corning.
De Long, Mrs. G. W., Corning.
Delleger, F. N., Springfield.
Denel. A. C., Urbana.
De Vanet, Etta, Covington.
Dickinson, Francis M., Ashtabula.
Dillin, Susie A., Cleveland.
Disman, Lizzie J., Lima.
Dohrman, C. R., Steubenville.
Dolle, Edwin, Cincinnati.
Dolle, Emma, Cincinnati.
Donnaly, May, Cincinnati.
Donnelly, L. E., Toledo.
Dounolly, Peter S., Toledo.
Doty, H. E., Cleveland.
Dryden, Nellie H., Cleveland.
Duncamp, James, Bridgeport.
Dunn, Emily, Cincinnati.
Dyer, Frank R., Ada.
Eaton, John, Marietta.
Eavery, Lucy, Xenia.
Eby, Mary E., Upper Sandusky.
Eggers, E. A., Columbus.
Elcok, Lucy, Van Wert.
Elwell, Jean B., Xenia.
Elliot, Rebecca, Harrison.
Evans, Dora J., Steubenville,
Faber, Josephine, Salem.
Farst, Maria, Toledo.
Fawcett, D. Frank, Westerville.
Fawcett, Geo. S., Salem.
Fawcett, Sallie, Salem.
Fink, W. B., Mansfield.
Finnerty, Wm., Cincinnati.
Fischer, Carrie, Cincinnati.
Fitzgerald, Carrie, Delaware.
Fitzgerald, Katherine, Cincinnati.
Fitzpatrick, Mrs. Maggie, Toledo.
Flanagan, Eleanor, Toledo.
Fleet, Gretta, Tiffin.
Fleet, Lucy, Tiffin.
Fleming, M. C., Xenia.
Floyd, Maggie L., Toledo.
Fluhart, Fannie, Dayton.
Forchheimer, M. S., Cincinnati.
Fort, C. A., Cleveland.
Fortney, J. R., Sharonsville.
Fortney, J. R., Cincinnati.
Fortney, S. A., Cincinnati.
Fortney, S. A., Sharonsville.
Frank, H. L., West Liberty.
Frankenstein, H. F., Cincinnati.
Fraser, Helen, Columbus.
Fraser, M. A., Cleveland.
Freeman, Phœbe S., Cleveland.
French, Ella M., Toledo.
Frey, Ella J.,Toledo.
Freidberger, M., Cincinnati.
Frintz, Ida, Cincinnati.
Fuller, J. R., Urbana.
Fuller, Nellie A., Cleveland.
Fulton, Benj., Canal Fulton.
Gano, G., Cincinnati.
Gault, Emma E., Cincinnati.
Gault, Wm. P., Cincinnati.
Gaumer, E. B., Urbana.
Geelan, Ella, Toledo.
Geelan, Kate, Toledo.
Glatz, Emma, Cincinnati.
Glines, Carrie, Canal Fulton.
Goodman, Alice I., Walnut Hills.
Goodnough, W. S., Columbus.
Gore, Mary, Lima.
Gorman, Mrs. Jas. J., Cincinnati.
Gorno, Albino, Cincinnati.
Graham, Nellie, Cincinnati.
Greenhoot, Mrs. D., Cincinnati.
Greenslade, J. M., Lima.
Gridly, Jennie, Toledo.
Gunning, Anna C., Cincinnati.
Gunther, I. C., Utica.
Guthrie, O. B., Cincinnati.
Guthrie, Mrs. O. B., Cincinnati.
Hagans, M. B., Cincinnati.
Hagerman, C. C., Dayton.
Hagerman, Eliza, Dayton.
Hamilton, L. S., Washington C. H.
Hann, Sarah A., Cincinnati.
Hanna, Louise, Mt. Vernon.
Hannudt, Sybel, Cincinnati.
Hard, M. E., Salem.
Harmon, Mrs., Cincinnati.
Harrison, C. M., Marietta.
Hartzell, Frank E., Alliance.
Haviland, F. G., Toledo.
Haviland, S. E., Toledo.
Haylor, D. A., Bryan.
Haynes, Lotta, Conneaut.
Hazeman, Eva, Lebanon.
Heck, Emma, Dayton.
Heck, Maggie, Dayton.
Hedges, Mrs. Emma, Cleveland.
Henderson, C. H., Cleveland.
Henkle, Mrs. W. D., Salem.

OHIO. (*Continued.*)

Hennessey, Bee M., Sidney.
Hennessey, Maggie, Cincinnati.
Henry, Cora B., Newark.
Herbig, Lisette, Liffin.
Hervey, Mrs. L. R., Cincinnati.
Hill, J. J., Cincinnati.
Hill, S. B., Lockland.
Hinsdale, B. A., Cleveland.
Hirth, Anna, Toledo.
Hirth, M. P., Toledo.
Hodge, Mrs. A., Dayton.
Hoffhines, F. J., Columbus.
Hoffmann, Emma, Columbus.
Hoffmann, Laura, Columbus.
Holley, Maggie, Toledo.
House, N. W., Toledo.
Hopkins, C. H., Cincinnati.
Hopkins, Mrs. C. H., Cincinnati.
Howard, Jerome B., Cincinnati.
Howells, Mrs. M. H., Cincinnati.
Hubbard, M. L., Toledo.
Hughes, Jas. E., Cleveland.
Hutchins, Nellie, Marietta.
Hutchinson, Cyrus B., Cambridge.
Huttenbauer, A., Cincinnati.
Hypes, O. F., Springfield.
Irish, F. V., Lima.
Irish, Mrs. F. V., Lima.
Irving, Clair, Toledo.
Irving, Mrs. S. I., Toledo.
Jacobs, Norma, North Toledo.
Jenks, V. D., Xenia.
Johnson, Sue A., Dayton.
Johnson, Susie P., Cincinnati.
Johnston, Mrs. A. A. F., Oberlin.
Jones, Anna B., Grandville.
Jones, Blanche, Columbus.
Jones, B. F., Shreve.
Jones, E. A., Massilon.
Kahn, Chas., Cincinnati.
Kamnacher, Mrs. L., Columbus.
Keit, Jonas, Woodville.
Kellog, J., Cincinnati.
Kelly, Eleanor, Dayton.
Kelly, J. A., Hamilton.
Kelly, M. L., Bellville.
Kennich, Mary, Cincinnati.
Killen, Laura, Columbus.
Killen, N., Columbus.
Kemp, D. G., Ada.
King, H. C., Oberlin.
Kinney, J. C., Cincinnati.
Klinge, Anna D., Cincinnati.
Klingman, Henry, Portsmouth.
Klossen, Ada, Coshocton.
Knepper, C. O., Tiffin.
Knickerbocker, C. E., Cincinnati.
Knott, J. W., Tiffin.
Kramer, B. H., Dayton.
Krehbiel, Silma G., Cleveland.
Krug, Mary, Dayton.
Kruse, A. E., Cincinnati.
Kueller, Mrs. S., Cincinnati.
Kunkle, Mary, Springfield.
Kyle, Delia, Troy.
Lace, A. M., Cleveland.
Lacker, Clara, Cincinnati.
Lamoreaux, M. S., North Fairfield.
Lampert, Caroline, Mansfield.
Lathrop, Mrs. C., Cincinnati.
Laughridge, Mrs. C. H., McConnellsville.
Lawrence, Flo, Toledo.
Lazenby, W. P., Columbus.
Lee, Jane, North Fairfield.
Leener, C. W., Cincinnati.
Leggitt, Fannie, Wooster.
Lenaham, Mrs. S., Cincinnati.
Leonard, Alice S., Marietta.
Lewis, Gussie, Cincinnati.
Lewis, Sallie A., Cincinnati.
Liggett, F. D., Canal Fulton.
Little, Florence, Mechanicsburgh.
Loards, A. W., Cincinnati.
Loeffler, Ollie, Columbus.
Logan, M. E., Toledo.
Looker, Clara H., Cincinnati.
Loos, C. L., Jr., Dayton.
Lowater, H. G., Toledo.
Lowe, Mrs. J. S., Geneva.
Lowry, Jennie, Claylick.
Luken, John G., Cincinnati.
Luttry, Miss A. M., Cincinnati.
Lytle, J. T., Cincinnati.
Lytle, Sada J., Wadsworth.
McChesney, E., Columbus.
McChesney, S. M., Columbus.
McCormal, Mary E., Cleveland.
McCullaugh, G., Cincinnati.
McGaw, Margaret, Bellaire.
McGee, John A., Dayton.
McGuire, L. A., Cincinnati.
McGushin, Hnnnah, Sandusky.
McKnight, Zora, Pomeroy.
McFarland, Kate, Cleveland.
McMonigal, Ida, Wooster.
McNees, Mrs. Emma, Cincinnati.
McPherson, J. H., Xenia.
Margraf, Chas., Cincinnati.
Marshall, Allie, Cincinnati.
Marshall, L., Cincinnati.
Markle, Alice, Markle.
Masfield, Lizzie, Cincinnati.
Masfield, Mrs., Cincinnati.
Matson, J. S., Marietta.
Matt, Geo., Cincinnati.
Maxon, H. N., Gallepolis.
Mears, J. C., Cincinnati.
Mecke, Robert, Cincinnati.
Medlenger, Walter, Toledo.
Merrill, S. P., Wickliffe.
Merty, H. N., Steubenville.
Mety, Gertrude, Cincinnati.
Meyer, N., Dayton.
Meyers, Belle, Steubenville.
Meyers, Edward, Steubenville.
Meyers, Hattie, Canton.
Michael, Hattie, Cincinnati.
Miller, Carrie M., Dayton.

OHIO. (*Continued.*)

Miller, Geo. W., Cincinnati.
Miller, Lillie A., Dayton.
Miller, R. S., Toledo.
Milligan, S. S., Wooster.
Mitchell, Alma C., Lockford.
Mitchell, Bell, Xenia.
Moers, Sallie C., Cincinnati.
Moore, A. T., Conover.
Moore, Fannie, Springfield.
Morris, Ella M., Austinfield.
Morris, M. B., Austinburgh.
Morris, Mrs. M. B., Austinburgh.
Morse, Anna J., Toledo.
Mozena, Olive, Ulrichsville.
Muerman, C. A., Cleveland.
Muerman, Martha, Cleveland.
Muhlberg, Ed., Cincinnati.
Mulholland, E., Cincinnati.
Murphy, H. L., Toledo.
Muray, Anna, Toledo.
Newell, L. S., Cleveland.
Nicholas, E. A., Toledo.
Nickerson, S. H., Burbank.
Niedman, Mary, Toledo.
Nippert, C. L., Cincinnati.
Normanton, Emily, Toledo.
Noyes, S. H., Seville.
O'Connell, W. J., Cincinnati.
O'Connell, Mrs. W. J., Cincinnati.
O'Donnell, Maggie, Sandusky.
O'Niel, Agnes, Cincinnati.
O'Niel, Nellie, Cincinnati.
O'Niel, Rose, Cincinnati.
O'Niel, Mrs. R. C., Cincinnati.
Owen, Amelia, Newark.
Owen, Jno., Cincinnati.
Owen, Mrs. J., Cincinnati.
Page, Robert L., Ironton.
Page, Mrs. R. L., Ironton.
Page, Wm. H., Ironton.
Paine, Delia E., Lima.
Palmer, Corwin F., Dresden.
Parsons, Alice, Mt. Gilead.
Patrick, J. W., Cincinnati.
Patrick, Mrs. J. W., Cincinnati.
Patterson, E. P., Dayton.
Perkins, Fidelia.
Peterson, M. L., Cleveland.
Petit, M. D., Troy.
Phelps, Nellie, Holland.
Pinney, Mrs. L. B., Massilon.
Pittinger, Theresa, Tiffin.
Pomeroy, D. W., Cincinnati.
Pomeroy, Mrs. D. W., Cincinnati.
Potter, F. C., Toledo.
Porter, Ed. J , Cincinnati.
Price, Sallie, Columbus.
Prichard, E. H., Cincinnati.
Prichard, M. F., Cincinnati.
Puff, Henry, Cincinnati.
Quimby, Chas., Toledo.
Quimby, Nellie, Toledo.
Quinn, Mary, Cincinnati.
Raley, Jessie, Carrolton.
Ranch, Lewis, Caledonia.
Randall, P. C., Marion.
Rankin, Nettie, Washington C. H
Raymer, Carrie S., Coshocton.
Read, E. B., Cincinnati.
Reamer, C. A., Oberlin.
Reddning, Minnie L , Toledo.
Reed, H. C., Cincinnati.
Reese, W. C., Werterville.
Reiter, E., Alliance.
Rennick, Susie, Cincinnati.
Richert, Amanda E., Akron.
Ridge, John C., Waynesville.
Ritter, S. M., Dayton.
Robb, Ella, Harrisville.
Robb, Lillian, Marysville.
Robbins, C., Springfield.
Roberts, Mary E., Cleveland.
Robertson, Anna, Macedonia.
Robison, Hattie, Macedonia.
Rogers, Maud, Madisonville.
Rood, Mary, Toledo.
Rose, Idora, Van Wert.
Rosenthal, Dora, Toledo.
Rowley, Anna, North Fairfield.
Royl, J. W., Canal Fulton.
Ruess, Bertha, Mansfield.
Ruggles, C. B., Cincinnati.
Runge, Elise, Cincinnati.
Rupe, Mrs J. M., Mt. Gilead.
Salamon, J. C., Cincinnati.
Schenck, Clara, Miamisburgh.
Schenck, Luella, Miamisburgh.
Schmidt, George, Yellow Springs.
Schry, Mrs., Cincinnati.
Schwab, J., Cincinnati.
Scott, Jean, Cincinnati.
Scott, Mima, Van Wert.
Scott, W. H., Columbus.
Scovel, Sylvester F., Wooster.
Search, P. W., Sidney.
Search, Mrs. P. W., Sidney.
Secrest, Elva B., Urichsville.
Shanaham, Katie, Delaware.
Shannon, Kate, Cincinnati.
Shawan, J. A., Mt. Vernon.
Sheahan, Lizzie, Toledo.
Shook, Nevado, Lima.
Shuffield, E. M., Massilon.
Shuffield, Mrs. E. M., Massilon.
Sibley, F. H., Cincinnati.
Simonton, C. W., Cincinnati.
Skeldon, Grace, North Toledo.
Skransewfky, A., Tiffin.
Skransewfky, Jennie, Tiffin.
Skransewfky, L., Tiffin.
Slee, Laura, Steubenville.
Slickney, Lucia, Cincinnati.
Slom, C. E., Cincinnati.
Smith, A. J., Cincinnati.
Smith, Edna F., Cincinnati.
Smith, Ellen, Columbus.
Smith, E. G., Hillsborough.
Smith, Jas. E., Cincinnati.

OHIO. *(Continued.)*

Smith, Jessie, Hillsborough.
Smith, Sarah W., Berea.
Snavely, G. W., Urbana.
Speweer, Henry T., Cleveland.
Speweer, N. Hattie, Cleveland.
Spage, E. H., Steubenville.
Sproat, Mary, Zanesville.
Staley, Florence, Mechanicsburg.
Starbuck, A. B., Cincinnati.
Starry, Kate, Dayton.
Steckel, Anna, Cincinnati.
Stein, S., Cincinnati.
Steinberg, Margaret, Cincinnati.
Stephens, Mrs. W. H., Lima.
Stelt, C. F., Xenia.
Stevenson, Mrs. Lizzie K., Cincinnati.
Stewart, C. A., Londonville.
Stewart, N. Coe, Cleveland.
Stilley, Mrs. J., Cincinnati.
Stout, Mrs. Emily, Springfield.
Stratton, Mrs. C. E., Cincinnati.
Stroman, Lyde R., Bellaire.
Sullivan, Christine, Cincinnati.
Sullivan, Kate, Toledo.
Sutherland, Margaret W., Mansfield.
Taggart, I. M., Canal Fulton.
Taylor, Eliza, Bellaire.
Taylor, M. L. C., Cincinnati.
Thompson, Ella, Cincinnati.
Thompson, H. A., Westerville.
Thompson, Sophia, Springfield.
Tierney, Katie, Cincinnati.
Tierney, Mary, Cincinnati.
Townshend, N. S., Columbus.
Tozzer, Augusta, Cincinnati.
Triedtke, Katie, Toledo.
Tuck, Anna, Cleveland.
Tucker, Mrs. J. F., Cincinnati.
Twoey, Mary, Cincinnati.
Uphof, Cora, Cincinnati.
Vaile, Mrs. E. M., Dayton.
Vallandingham, Anna, Cincinnati.
Vallandingham, S., Cincinnati.
Vallette, Jennie, Toledo.
Vance, Sophie, Van Wert.
Van Cleve, C. L., Troy.
Van Vliet, Emma, Bucyrus.
Vaughan, E. P., Richmond.
Vegel, Wm. H., Cincinnati.
Waldhem, Mrs. V., Cincinnati.
Wall, E. D., Lima.
Ward, Hattie J., Van Wert.
Ward, Josie, Tiffin.
Weister, Pauline, Coshocton.
Wells, A. R., Yellow Springs.
Wells, C. K., Marietta.
Wells, C. P., Yellow Springs.
Wells, Mrs. M. H., Yellow Springs.
Westerfield, S. V., Greenville.
Westerfield, Mrs. S. V., Greenville.
Wheeler, Laura J., Kingston.
Whittaker, Lizzie A., Cleveland.
Whitney, Lynde. Kirkland.
Wilgus, Chas., Xenia.
Wilgus, Mary, Xenia.
William, W. G., Deleware.
Williamson, A. W., Cincinnati.
Wilmot, Eleanor H., Columbus.
Wilson, W. H., Canton.
Wilson, Mrs. W. H., Canton.
Winne, Kate, Mt. Vernon.
Wise, Celia, Cincinnati.
Wood, Jennie L., Perry.
Worthington, E. W., Xenia.
Wright, C. F., Cincinnati.
Wright, J. L., Orville.
Wright, Mrs. J. L., Orville.
Wykoff, May, Sidney.
Wynne, Homer, Cincinnati.
Wynne, Norma, Toledo.
Wynne, Sarah, Cincinnati.
Yardley, R. M., Mansfield.
Yardley, R. W., Mansfield.
Yarnell, J. M., Coshocton.
Young, Robert, Urbana.
Yowell, R. C., Cincinnati.
Zurfluh, Lena, Toledo.

OREGON.

Allen, G. W., Portland.
Allen, Mrs. G. W., Portland.
Burnham, Anna M., Portland.
Fraser, Mrs. E. P., Portland.
MacConnell, Christina, Portland.
McIntire, E. J., Portland.
Parish, Alice, Portland.
Rounds, E. B., Portland.
Rounds, R. E., Portland.
Spalding, Helen F., Portland.
Tolman, Emma, Ashton.

PENNSLYVANIA.

Aber, J. A., Pittsburgh.
Adams, E. J., Harrisburg.
Adams, L., Harrisburg.
Anderson, E. T., Meadville.
Babcock, C. A., Oil City.
Barlow, C. B., Philadelphia.
Barnett, W. H., Philadelphia.
Bachelor, Daniel, Philadelphia.
Bentley, A. M., Meadville.
Boyd, S. L., Meadville.

PENNSYLVANIA. *(Continued.)*

Britton, Clara, Philadelphia.
Britton, Stella, Philadelphia.
Brown, Marion, Alleghany.
Burke, Edward, Philadelphia.
Burrows, S. S., Philadelphia.
Burt, M. B., Pittsburgh.
Can, F. J., Pittsburgh.
Cashbaugh, Mrs. C., Beaver Falls.
Christian, Mrs. E. G., Erie.
Christian, Joe, Erie.
Corser, H. P., Towanda.
Crooks, Margaret J., Allegheny.
Crozier, D. E., York.
Davidson, Helen, Pittston.
Durling, L. H., Indiana.
Frampton, Wade, Pittsburgh.
Gantenbeim, C. N., Philadelphia.
Geary, Harry M., Philadelphia.
Geary, Ida, Philadelphia.
Glein, L. F., Philadelphia.
Greth, M. Ella, Reading.
Gyger, H., Bryn Mawr.
Hall, F. R., California.
Hammers, Mrs. A. M., Indiana.
Harpel, S. K., Philadelphia.
Hartman, Marion, Meadville.
Higbee, E. E., Harrisburg.
Hoeflich, Mrs. E., Philadelphia.
Hoeflich, Ella R., Philadelphia.
Hoeflich, Sallie W., Philadelphia.
Hollenbeck, Mrs. Aug., Philadelphia.
Horset, Mrs. J., Towanda.
Hotchkiss, H. E., Meadville.
Hubley, Sarah S., Erie.
Jenkins, Annie E., Wrightsdale,
Jenkins, Venie, Lyles.
Jennings, Joseph, Monongahela.
Johnson, Lizzie J., Erie.
Johnson, Mrs., Erie.
Jones, H. S., Erie.
Keen, L. M., Hazelton.
Kelsey, L. S., Erie.
Kent, G. M., Corry.
Kite, Mary W., Philadelphia.
Lehman, Retta W., Philadelphia.
Lodor, E., Philadelphia.
Lodor, S., Philadelphia.
Lyte, E. O., Millerville.
McClintock, Louise, Meadville.
McGary, N. A., New Castle.
McIntosh, Laura, Philadelphia.
Mackey, E., Butler.
McMillan, Agnes, Philadelphia.
McMillan, Nettie, Philadelphia.
MacMullin, Anna, Philadelphia.
McSparran, Belle K., Green.
Malack, Grace, Girard.
Marsden, Sophia C., Towanda.
Mason, William, Philadelphia.
Matz, Sue, Reading.
Mitchill, Maggie L., New Castle.
Morrison, Andrew J., Philadelphia.
Morrison, J. M., Girard.
Morrow, Jno., Alleghany.
Newton, A., Beaver Falls.
Noss, Mary J., California.
Noss, Thos. B., California.
Olden, S. I., Philadelphia.
Quinlan, Edwin E., Towanda.
Riblet, Jessie G., Erie.
Riddler, C. A., Pittsburgh.
Rider, Mary J., Philadelphia.
Roof, Mrs. G. B., Indiana.
Sand, Clara, Harrisburg.
Schæffer, Nathan C., Kutztown.
Scott, J. P., Harrisburgh.
Shaffner, L. R., Steeltown.
Sherwood, Clara, Erie.
Smith, A. L., Forskville.
Spindler, G. A., Washington.
Staley, S., La Fayette.
Stiles, Nettie, Erie.
Stout, David H., Philadelphia.
Stout, Mrs. F. W., Philadelphia.
Strickler, Mrs. Sarah D., Media.
Swingle, W. M., Kittanning.
Thompson, Ella, Girard.
Thompson, S. R., New Wilmington.
Torrence, Emma Q., Philadelphia.
Townsend, G. W., Philadelphia.
Veazey, Mrs. L. E., Glenwood.
Watson, E. H., Rochester.
Wicks, M. B., Philadelphia.
Wilcox, Julia E., Philadelphia.
Williams, Alice, Girard.
Wilson, R. J., Paris.
Wobensmith, Almira J., Reading.
Zervey, Anna L., Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.

Armington, Carrie F., E. Providence.
Baker, Anna J., Pascoag.
Cambell, Annie E., Providence.
Cook, Daniel A., Providence.
Cook, Harriet A., Providence.
Cummings, Mary L., Pawtucket.
Cunningham, Mary L., Pawtucket.
Dunham, M. F., Providence.
Guilbert, Jean E., Providence.
Jackson, G. S., Woonsocket.
Lewis, Frances W., Providence.
Mason, A. E., Providence.
Ogden, Mrs. J. D., Providence.
Peck, Wm. B., Providence.
Peck, Wm. T., Providence.
Peck, Mrs. Wm. T., Providence.
Pury, Clara F., Providence.
Ransom, Mrs., Providence.
Rawson, Clara E., Providence.
Reynolds, E. C., Providence.
Reynolds, Mrs. H. C., Wauskuck.
Shaw, Emma, Providence.

RHODE ISLAND. (*Continued.*)

Stevens, H. A., Masonville.
Tabor, Mary, Providence.
Tabor, Walter H., Slatersville.
Tarbell, H. S., Providence.
Terry, Mary E., Washington.
Towne, Elizabeth, Providence.
Winsor, Harriet, Greenville.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Ford, L. H., Spartanburgh.
Simms, J. C., Charleston.

TENNESSEE.

Acree, Florence, Memphis.
Bell, Clara J., Nashville.
Blackwell, J. B., Shelbyville.
Braden, J., Nashville.
Braden, Mary E., Nashville.
Carter, Alice, Knoxville.
Cash, J. B., Chattanooga.
Conroy, Mary, Nashville.
Crockett, Josie K., Nashville.
Crockett, R. E., Rock Hill.
Davis, E. B., Nashville.
Davis, Florence, E. Nashville.
Eldrige, Grace S., Memphis.
Eyell, N. M., Murfreesborough.
Farrell, A., Nashville.
Foust, Minnie B., Knoxville.
Freitag, Theresa, Nashville.
Gale, F. P., Nashville.
Garrett, W. R., Nashville.
Hamlin, T. W., E. Nashville.
Hamner, J. T., Nashville.
Harting, Mrs. Martha, Nashville.
Harting, Willie, Nashville.
Haynes, J. B., Murfreesborough.
Higbee, Eleanor, Memphis.
Higbee, Jennie, Memphis.
Hitzfield, Mary, Memphis.
Hoffax, A. C., Knoxville.
Jones, S. P., Nashville.
Jones, W. S., Memphis.
Joseph, W. M., Nashville.
Kinney, S. A., Offutt.
LaCour, P. L., Nashville.
Layford, Laura, Nashville.
Lampson, Jno. L., Nashville.
Lawrence, Mrs. A. L., Jellico.
Lawrence, G. W., Jellico.
Malone, Annie C., Memphis.
McCrory, Clara H., Nashville.
McNabb, Mrs. M. C., Memphis.
Morrison, Virginia, Memphis.
Mulcahy, Mrs., Memphis.
Nance, Bethenna H., Nashville.
Parsons, S. B., Nashville.
Petit, J. M. S., Nashville.
Price, Ed. A., Nashville.
Price, Geo. W. F., Nashville.
Ready, M. A., Nashville.
Ridley, C. L., Nashville.
Rountree, Lillie, Nashville.
Ruth, Albert, Knoxville.
Smith, Susie M., Nashville.
Smith, Wm., Nashville.
Smits, Wm. Jr., Nashville.
Stallings, H., Humboldt.
Stallings, W. L., Humboldt.
Swansom, M., Springfield.
Tamble, P. M., Nashville.
Tamble, Mrs. P. M., Nashville.
Tucker, Mrs. M. C., Memphis.
Waters, Geo. C., Nashville.
Zell, Lola E., Murfreesborough.

TEXAS.

Baldwin, Joseph, Huntsville.
Balfe, Harry, Dallas.
Ballinger, M. L., Paris.
Barnes, R. B., Rockvale.
Bates, Rose, Bonham.
Bird, B., Paris.
Bird, E. F., Paris.
Breeding, Mamie C., Caldwell.
Boyd, Ehle, Ft. Worth.
Chase, Mrs. W. E., Ouanah.
Colston, Thomas M., Flatonia.
Desbrow, Alice M., El Paso.
Garnett, J. H., Seguin.
Gulick, J. W., Corsicana.
Gulick, S. T., Corsicana.
Harrison, Nannie, Greenville.
Hartlee, N. W., Dallas.
Hogg, Alex, Fort Worth.
Hunstable, A., Dallas.
Ickard, E. F., Fort Worth.
Johnson, M. J., Ennis.
Kemp, Joseph A., Witchita Falls.
Londen, Mary, Denison.
Londen, Nannie T., Denison.
Luckie, C. W., Huntsville.
Marshall, K. N., Paris.
Martin, Mrs. Fannie C., Paris.
Masters, W. H., Fort Worth.

TEXAS.—(*Continued.*)

McCoy, Ella, Dallas.
McCoy, Lulu, Dallas.
Merrick, Mrs. S. J., San Antonios.
Mills, Mrs. F. C., Dallas.
Moore, A. J., Waco.
Myers, C. L., Troy.
Nabers, J. B., Troy.
Packard, B. R., Ennis.
Patillo, Thos. J., Houston.
Pennybacker, Percy V., Tyler.
Pfouts, Mrs. B. S., Dallas.
Ray, J. W., Dallas.
Rosecrans, J. H., Dallas.
Shields, Mary, Galveston.
Spratlin, P. E., Dallas.
Starks, J. R., Dallas.
Steer, W. C., Dallas.
Taff, J. L., Austin.
Thompson, H. L., Lovelady.
Warren, Mrs. Ed. F., Fort Worth.
Wilkins, A. H., Dallas.
Williams, J. R., Dallas.
Williams, Julia, Fort Worth.
Willison, Henrie, Dallas.
Withers, S. R., Fort Worth.
Wright, G. N., Woodworth.
Young, Mattie, Waxahachie.

VERMONT.

Bailey, Caroline, Proctorsville.
Bishop, Anna M., Brandon.
Colberg, Wm., Burlington.
Conant, H. B., St. Johnsbury.
Dakin, F. A., St. Johnsbury.
Drew, J. H., St. Johnsbury.
Greene, Nellie A., Lower Waterford.
Griswolg, G. D., Jeffersonville.
Hardy, Wm., Swanton.
Harvey, Flora E., St. Johnsbury.
Hogle, Mary E., Swanton.
Holdon, R. B., Burlington.
Howland, F. G., Barre.
Janes, E. N., St. Albans.
Ladd, Hattie A., Sharon.
Ladd, Fannie E., Sharon.
Ladd, Mary E., Summerville.
Lane, Mrs. W. H., Burlington.
Leach, Emma L., Swanton.
Lym, Florence E., St. Albans.
Lym, Lillian, St. Albans.
Lyman, Louise H., White River.
Manden, Nellie L., St. Johnsbury.
Morse, Mrs. E. D , St. Johnsbury.
Morse, F. E., St. Johnsbury.
Nilley, B. F., Cambridge.
Pierce, Geo. J., West Randolph.
Pierce, Nelson M., Ludlow.
Ranney, Nellie M., West Concord.
Robbins, J. H., E. Montpielier.
Robbins, Mrs. J. H., E. Montpielier.
Shedd, J. A , Burlington.
Spooner, C. H., Saxton's River.
Stewart, Edna A., St. Johnsbury.
Swett, Mrs. H. S., Highgate.
Underwood, Cornelia, Burlington.
Walton, G. B., Montpielier.
Wetherby, H. L., Burlington.
Whitcomb, C. H., Burlington.
Willard, Mrs., Burlington.
Wire, W. E., Woodstock.

VIRGINIA.

Buchanan, John L., Richmond.
Dreher, Julius D., Salem.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Anderson, W. H., Wheeling.
Brown, S. B., Glenville.
Cook, John C., Wheeling.
Cook, Mrs. John C., Wheeling.
Dillon, Ella, Wheeling.
Gittings, John G., Clarkburg.
Klug, Maggie, Wheeling.
Neides, Samuel, Wheeling.

WISCONSIN.

Adams, Jennie D., Oshkosh.
Albee, Annie, Green Bay.
Albee, Jennie, Green Bay.
Allen, M. B., Darlington.
Anderson, Anna, Ft. Howard.
Anderson, Lida, Merrill.
Anderson, Mrs., Columbus.
Anderson, Mrs. W. E., Milwaukee.
Anerswald, Mrs., Mariuetta.
Arnold, Chas., La Crosse.
Aubon, Mrs. A. J., Eau Claire.
Aubon, D. C., Eau Claire.

WISCONSIN.—(*Continued.*)

Augustine, A. B., Racine.
Babcock, Gertrude, Eau Claire.
Babcock, J. Q., Omro.
Bacon, Florence, West Salem.
Barr, Carrie, Lake Geneva.
Balkan, Martha, River Fall.
Banker, Lizzie L., Merrill.
Barnes, C. C., Manitowoc.
Bates, Lou H., Janesville.
Beach, W. H., Madison.
Beach, Mrs. W. H., Madison.
Beachly, Ella M., Lodi.
Belanger, Stella, Grand Rapids.
Bentley, M. J., Appleton.
Bevan, Alex, Milwaukee.
Bews, J. M., Racine.
Billings, Carrie, Madison.
Bird, Adelaide, Milwaukee.
Blackly, Anna S., Baraboo.
Blakesley, E. L., Oshkosh.
Bliss, Fannie P., Eau Claire.
Blackburn, Mary E., Oshkosh.
Boden, F. E., Oquakoka.
Bowe, James, Fond du Lac.
Boynton, Ida Platteville.
Brace, Mary, Eau Claire.
Bradburg, Mary, New London.
Brier, W. J., Baraboo.
Bright, Jennie, Trempealeau.
Bright, R., Trempealeau.
Bright, Mrs. R., Trempealeau.
Brown, C. E., Madison.
Brown, N. G., Berlin.
Brown, W. O., Sturgeon Bay.
Burch, Arthur, Milwaukee.
Burke, Anna C., Fond du Lac.
Burritt, Francis, La Crosse.
Burt, Ida, Clinton.
Calkins. E. M., Bradtville.
Calmerton, Eva, Milwaukee.
Campbell, Florence, Door Creek.
Campbell, Julia, Milwaukee.
Campbell, M., Milwaukee.
Cemdall, Fannie, Ripon.
Chamberlain, N. C., Beloit.
Champer, M. H., Madison.
Charles, Alfred, Darlington.
Chesterman, J. Alice, Loyal.
Christ, Hattie, Beloit.
Christer, Jennie, Berlin.
Clapp, Ettie M., New Richmond.
Clapp, May L., New Richmond..
Clark, L. H., Tomah.
Clark, Lillian, Berlin.
Clay, Leora S., Milwaukee.
Coburn, Hattie, West Salem.
Cochrane, Thalia. Shawano.
Cole, Jas. H.. Hayward.
Coleman, J. E., Evansville.
Collie, Geo. L., Delaware.
Coulin, Thomas, White Water.
Connell, S. A., De Pere.
Cook, A. R., White Water.
Cooper, Mary E, La Crosse.
Copp, Mrs. E. P., Madison.
Cotill, Sarah, Fond du Lac.
Cowen, Mary C., Ft. Atkinson.
Crarath, Ida, White Water.
Crarath, Mary, White Water.
Crist, Hattie E., Beloit.
Cull, Mare E., Salem.
Culvea, Mrs. E. F., Eau Claire.
Cutter C. A., Eau Claire.
Cutter, Hattie L., Milwaukee.
Cutting, D. D., Racine.
Daggett, Bessie, Oshkosh.
Daniels, Abby, Helena.
Darlington, Lena A., Geneva Lake.
Darnall, R., Black River Falls.
Davies, Mattie, Baraboo.
Davis, Sophie E., Winneconne.
Day, L. L., Hutchings.
Day, Mrs. L. L., Hutchings.
Dengler, Clara, Madison.
Dengler, Ida, Madison,
Dengler, Rosa, Madison.
Denison, F. W., Bayfield.
Depre, George, Chippewa.
Dickins, Charles H., Sharon.
Diebelsky, Julia, Manitowoc.
Disbro, J. S., Rice Lake.
Doberty, Ellen, Berlin.
Dollar, Jennie. Berlin.
Donaghey, Bessie, North Freedom.
Doolittle, Lida, Menonomie.
Doty, Elrena, La Crosse.
Dow, J. J., Baraboo.
Dow, Myra A., Baraboo.
Dowling, M., Arena.
Dresser, Dora. Berlin.
Dumont, C. W., New Richmond.
Dyer, J. S., Ashland.
Edwards, J. T., Washburn.
Edwards, Mary, Cambria.
Elkington, C. H., Brownville.
Ellis, Emma, Berlin.
Ellis, Mrs. J. T., Eau Claire.
Emery, J. O., Ft. Atkinson.
Emmons, Lettie M., Stoughton,
Emmons, Lorena C., Stoughton.
Enos, Helen R., Appleton.
Ericson, Mrs. E. C., Elk Point.
Evans, J. H., Platteville.
Everett, Mrs. C. W, Oshkosh.
Fairchild, A. M., Racine
Fairchild, Mrs. M. E., Racine.
Fallon, Maggie, Appleton,
Faulks, Emma, Platteville.
Favell, E. B., Madison.
Felkins. Jennie, West Salem.
Fehlandt, H. S., Oshkosh.
Finncane, F. J., Madison.
Foot, L. E., River Falls.
Forkin, Alice, Chilton.
Forkin, Mary, Chilton.
Foster, J., Knapp.
Fowler, E. E., New Lisbon.
Fowler, Mrs. E. E., New Lisbon.

WISCONSIN (*Continued.*)

Fowlin, William, Wampoca.
Frawley, M. S., Eau Claire.
Frye, Addie, Menominie,
Frye, Della, Menomonie.
Fuller, Margaret P., Ripon.
Fuller, Newton S., Ripon.
Funk, Lewis, Milwaukee.
Funk, Mrs. Lewis, Milwaukee.
Galligan, Mary, Menah.
Gardner, Emma J., Milwaukee.
Gardner, Bridget, Platteville.
Gay, Lucy M., Madison.
Gay, Sarah A., Madison.
George, Florence, Racine.
George, S. M., Sinsinawa.
Gibson, Joseph, Rewey.
Gibson, W. D., White Water.
Gilfillan, Minnie, West Salem.
Gillan, M. J., Milwaukee.
Gillan, Silas Y., Milwaukee.
Gillette, L. H., Milwaukee.
Gilligan, Annie, Waukesha.
Gleason, Helen R., Madison.
Godder, Ella, Janesville.
Godder, Lillie, Janesville.
Goldsworthy, M. R., Linden.
Goldsworthy, T. M., Linden.
Goodman, Hattie, Mandowoc.
Gould, J. H., Lake Geneva.
Greene, Alice, Reedsburgh.
Greenwood, Barbara, Wisconsin.
Grindell, Clara, Platteville.
Grindell, Lillie, Platteville.
Grubb, Geo. S., Manston.
Gum, Nellie, Green Bay.
Gundry, N. P., Mineral Pt.
Guttman, Albert, Manitowoc.
Halsey, R. H., Oshkosh.
Hancock, J. A., Madison.
Harrison, C. N., Milwaukee.
Harrison, Mrs. C. N., Milwaukee.
Hart, Lillian, Racine.
Hartman, Pauline, La Crosse.
Hatherell, Rose, Janesville.
Hawhurtt, Mary, Eau Claire.
Haylett, E. G., Sheboygan.
Hefferman, J. L., Platteville.
Heid, Sophia, Milwaukee.
Hennecke, Caspar, Milwaukee.
Hewitt, P. H., Manitowoc.
Hewitt, Mrs. P. H., Manitowoc.
Hibbard, D. O., Racine.
Hill, Mary, Milwaukee.
Hilmantel, Helen, Milwaukee.
Hinrichs, Reka, Madison.
Hobart, A. I., Delavan.
Hobkirk, Mrs. R., Waupun.
Holden, W. G., Merrill.
Holferty, Geo. M., Oconto.
Howland, H. C., Eau Claire.
Hooper, S. A., Milwaukee.
Hooper, Mrs. S. A., Milwaukee.
Hoyt, Judson E., Lodi.
Hubbard, E. A., Kilbourn.
Hughes, W. J., West Salem.
Hulburt, C. D., Monroe.
Hulburt, L. S., Darlington.
Hulburt, Mrs. L. S., Darlington.
Humphrey, J. N., White Water.
Hunchette, Alice, Appleton.
Hunt, G. A., La Crosse.
Infelt, E. A., Sheboygan.
Ingalls, J. G., Menomonie.
Ingraham, May E., Boyneth.
Ives, Anna M., Ft. Atkinson.
Jack, O. W., Beloit.
Jackson, A., Eau Claire.
Jacobi, A., Chippewa Falls.
Johns, Sarah A., Bangor.
Johnson, Miss, Black River Falls.
Jonas, F. W., Madison.
Jones, Ellen C., Helena.
Jones, H. A., Appleton.
Jones, Jane Loyd, Spring Green.
Jones, Mrs. J. H., Janesville.
Jones, J. W., Boseman.
Jones, W. W., Madison.
Kamp, Jno. C., Lowell.
Kane, Mary, Portage.
Kelleher, M. G., De Pere.
Kelleher, M. H., De Pere.
Kelley, Carrie B., Racine.
Keppler, C. A., La Crosse.
Keyes, E. A., Fond du Lac.
Keyes, Geo. E., Reedsburg.
Kilgrove, W. W., Mazo Maine.
Kimball, Mary F., Berlin.
Kimball, W. W., Omro.
Kindley, Jno., La Crosse.
King, F. H., River Falls.
Kingsley, Minnie, Lodi.
Kinney, Dwight, Black River Falls.
Kinsey, Addie H., Marinette.
Knapp, E. M., White Water.
Knight, Maggie, Racine.
Knight, J. H., Racine.
Krusel, C. A., Eau Claire.
Lamb, C. E., Onalaska.
Lamont, Isabel, Madison.
Lamson, Gussie, Sparta.
Lamson, L. A., Sparta.
Lawson, Lydia, Reedsburg.
Lee, S. M., Sinsinawa.
Leonard, A. E., Royalton.
Leowe, Carrie, Eau Claire.
Lingsweiler, C. L., Racine.
Linn, J. L., Colby.
Little, Mrs. S. C., Janesville.
Livermore, Mrs. H. B., Berlin.
Livingston, J. W., Dodgeville.
Lucas, Stella, Menomonie.
Luckenbach, J. S., Green Bay.
Lusk, Mattie, River Falls.
Lyons, Thos. E., Fond du Lac.
MacKee, Mary, Hudson.
Mahoney, D. O., Viroqua.
Mangan, Dollie, Fond du Lac.
Mangan, Jeannie, Fond du Lac.

WISCONSIN. (*Continued.*)

Manning, Myra, Oshkosh.
Mansfield, Georgie, Berlin.
Mapel, J. J., Milwaukee.
Marsh, C. O., Two Rivers.
Marsh, Mrs. L. M., Two Rivers.
Martin, Clara G., Baraboo.
Martin, R. W., Oshkosh.
Matteson, E. J., Hudson.
Mays, E. C., Oshkosh.
McAssey, Mary, Ripon.
McCoy, Alice, North Freedom.
McCutchum, M. L., Milwaukee.
McDougal, Lydia A., Platteville.
McEly, J., Milwaukee.
McGanley, L., Fond du Lac.
McGovern, Mary, Madison.
McGovern, Nellie, Madison.
McGregor, J. K., Eau Claire.
McLean, Tessa, Fond du Lac.
Meisnest, Fred, Madison.
Menges, A. F., Madison.
Meyer, Mattie, Platteville.
Miner, Mrs. C. A., Fond du Lac.
Mitchell, I. M., Fond du Lac.
Mitchell, J. W., Fond du Lac.
Mitchell, Mrs. J. W., Fond du Lac.
Moore, Edith, Baraboo.
Moran, John, Fond du Lac.
Morgan, Effa L., La Crosse.
Morgan, H. A., Madison.
Morton, G. M., Richland.
Murdock, Genie J., Oshkosh.
Murdock, Mary E., Oshkosh.
Nagle, Eliza, Patch Grove.
Nash, Jennie.
Neeley, F. F., La Crosse.
Neeves, Clar F., Green Bay.
Neff, Addie, Neillsville.
Neittenheller, Cora, Platteville.
Nelson, Annette, Madison.
Nelson, Ida, River Falls.
Nelson, Kate S., Janesville.
Nelson, P. T., White Water.
Nichols, W. L., Donsman.
Nimman, C. F., Sank City.
Norris, Clara, Janesville.
North, L., Hudson.
Nott, Rosa N., Menomonie.
Nunns, Henry, Madison.
O'Connor, Nellie, Manitowoc.
Oderboby, Anna, Platts River Falls.
Olmstead, Lizzie, Neenah.
Olmstead, Lutie, Neenah.
O'Malley, Alice, Madison.
Oppel, Mrs. O., Madison.
Ostrander, Fanny E., Oshkosh.
Ottman, L. E., Neenah.
Owen, Estey, Bangor.
Parker, Geo. S., Janesville.
Parker, W. D., River Falls.
Pasquier, E., Racine.
Pasquier, N. M., Racine.
Patch, Martha, Poynette.
Patten, Jessie R., Janesville.
Patterson, Helen M., Eau Claire.
Patterson, S. E., Green Bay.
Paulson, E. J., Clinton.
Pearson, C. W.
Peck, Ida E., Racine.
Peck, Luther H., La Crosse.
Peck, Mrs. L. H., La Crosse.
Penhallegon, W. J., Mineral Point.
Pepoore, Helen A., Fox Lake.
Peterson, F. E., Milton.
Peterson, Mrs. F. E., Milton.
Phillips, C. J., Ahnapee.
Pickering, C. R., Muscoda.
Platt, Emily M. B., Platteville.
Platt, Rosa, Baraboo.
Potter, Anna, Platteville.
Powell, J. F., Marienette.
Pray, T. B., White Water.
Prichard, Anna, Janesville.
Prock, Mary E., Oshkosh.
Purdy, A. C., Appleton.
Purdy, Edith A., Appleton.
Quackenbush, M. A., West Salem.
Quinn, Mrs. Mary, Janesville.
Reddy, Hannah, Platteville.
Redfield, Nellie I., Racine.
Reed, Geo. H., Waukesha.
Reed, Mrs. Geo. H., Waukesha.
Reed, J. J., Eau Claire.
Reigle, G. W., Tomah.
Rhea, A. O., West Salem.
Rice, Nora B., Oshkosh.
Richardson, Minnie F., Manitowoc.
Richardson, W. H., Milwaukee.
Richardson, Mrs. W. H., Milwaukee.
Riordan, Jno. E., Sheboygan.
Robinson, Clara F., White Water.
Robinson, Edith F., Stoughton.
Roeffs, Constance, Manitowoc.
Rohan, E. L., Green Bay.
Rote, A. F., Berlin.
Ruggles, Alba L., Washburn.
Salisbury, Albert, White Water.
Salisbury, Hattie A., White Water.
Sanford, A. H., Platteville.
Sawyer, Alice M., Bangor.
Saxe, Emma G., Sparta.
Saxe, Mary R., White Water.
Schneider, Mrs., Chippewa Falls.
Schrisber, M. E., River Falls.
Scott, J. B., Stoughton.
Scott, Mrs. J. B., Stoughton.
Seamans, George J., Lime Ridge.
Soll, William F., New Holstein.
Selover, Mrs., Janesville.
Severin, Henry, New Holstein.
Shannon, Mary, Neenah.
Sheels, J. G., Sharon.
Sheldon, Anna, Janesville.
Shields, Fannie H., Chippewa Falls.
Sheridan, Eleanor O., Madison.
Slannon, Maggie, Neenah.
Slosson, F. A., Oshkosh.
Smalley, D. H., Fond du Lac.

WISCONSIN. (*Continued.*)

Smith, Carrie, Ft. Atkinson.
Smith, Edwin R., Manitowoc.
Smith, E. S., Clinton.
Smith, H. R., Richland Centre.
Smith, J. C., Madison.
Smith, Lillie D., Milton.
Smith, L. L., Galesville.
Smith, Mary Vale, Wakesha.
Smith, M. E., Madison.
Smith, Nellie M., Lake Geneva.
Spear, Cora B., Janesville.
Squires, Amos, Berlin.
Starr, Cora, Dodgeville.
Starr, C. Jr., Dodgeville.
Stevens, J. W., Madison.
Stevens, Arthur, Milwaukee.
Stewart, Isa M., Oshkosh.
Stewart, Mrs. I. N., Appleton.
Stewart, Mary, Ripon.
Stone, Minnie, Appleton.
Stowell, Chloe N., White Water.
Stretch, Mary, Waunakee.
Stupecky, Blanche, Manitowoc.
Swartz, Rose C., Oshkosh.
Sweet, Mary, Fond du Lac.
Sylvester, C. H., Boscobel.
Talbot, A. E., Berlin.
Talbot, A. J., Berlin.
Taylor, Mary E., Milwaukee.
Terry, J. H., Spring Green.
Thayer, A. M., River Falls.
Thomas, Sophia, Cobb.
Thomas, Hattie O., Madison.
Ticknor, W. D., Princeton.
Todd, L. R., Fond du Lac.
Tollefson, Mrs. L., Viroquia.
Tracy, W. A., Madison.
Turner, J. M., Ashland.
Tyler, A. E., Eau Claire.
Usher, Jane, La Crosse.
Utler, F. R., Marietta.
Van Der Vie, Kittie, Platteville.
Verbeck, H. C. V., Neenah.
Vetter, Julia F., Fond du Lac.
Voorhees, H. M., Sharon.
Wadsworth, J. S., River Falls.
Wagner, Mrs. C. H., Milwaukee.
Wagner, Lina, Milwaukee.
Walker, Mary, Milton.
Walton, Marian M., Marinette.
Warne, Eudice P., New Richmond.
Washington, Lucy, Baraboo.
Washington, Mrs. Lucy L., Baraboo.
Webster D., Prairie du Chein.
Webster, Mrs. D., Prarie du Chein.
Webster, L., Winneconne.
Webster, Mrs. L., Winneconne.
Webster, Miss, Oshkosh.
Weihe, H. J., Milwaukee.
Welman, Mary F., Oconomowoc.
Wells, Lillie, Monroe.
Wells, O. E., Appleton.
Wells, Mrs. O. E., Appleton.
Wernuck, Emil V., Racine.
West, C., Milwaukee.
Wheeler, Chetta, Marinette.
Wheeler, Jennie, Neemah.
Whelpley, Mary N., La Crosse.
Whitehead, Hattie A., White Water.
Wieman, Emma, Jefferson.
Wieman, H. F., Jefferson.
Wieman, Mary, Waterloo.
Wilder, Emma, La Crosse.
Wilder, Lulu L., La Crosse.
Wilkie, Mattie T., Fond du Lac.
Wilkinson, John, Durard.
Willet, Emma, New London.
Williams, Emma, Chester.
Williams, Jno. C., Dodgeville.
Williams, Lina A., Oshkosh.
Williamson, Susie, Madison.
Wills, Mrs. E. O., Appleton.
Willson, Mrs. C. F., Beloit.
Wiswall, E. C., Mazo Maine.
Wolroth, Jane, Eau Claire.
Woodward, Rena, Platteville.
Woolcock, C. G., Mineral Pt.
Yorker, Minnie, Arena.
Youmans, C. F., Oshkosh.
Zimmerman, A. G., Bloomington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Holcomb, J. W., Washington.
Hughes, A. L., Washington.
Kelley May C., Washington.
Lescher, Will, Washington.
Lewis, F. D., Washington.
Mack, Nellie M., Washington.
Mann, Mary E., Washington.
Nichols, Gussie, M., N. Washington.
Nichols, Lizzie S., N. Washington.
Prather, Lizzie L., N. Washington.
Smith, Mrs. E. B., Washington.
Wilson, Clara L., Washington.

TERRITORIES.

ARIZONA.

Strauss, Charles M , Tuscon.

DAKOTA.

Adams, Laura, Pierre.
Bailey, M. S., Sioux Falls.
Balcar, B., Scotland.
Bardenswerper, H. W., Rapid City.
Barnham, A. D., Buffalo.
Benedict, H. M., Redfield.
Bishop, Emilie, Rapid City.
Blanchard, H. C., Rapid City.
Bolinger, E. A., Vermillion.
Brisbine, Ada B., Pierre.
Brooking, E., Clifton.
Bros, H. L., Mt. Vernon.
Bros, Mrs. H. L., Mt. Vernon.
Brown, F. W., Rapid City.
Brown, Mrs. F. W., Rapid City.
Brown, H. S., Columbia.
Brown, Sadie P., Arvilla.
Burns, Ella L., Mt. Vernon.
Burns, H. M., Mt. Vernon.
Caton, Charles M., Rapid City.
Carpenter, Lee A., Redfield.
Carr, Lauren D., Brayton.
Clapp, Lottie, Tower City.
Clapp, W. J., Tower City.
Clapp, Mrs. W. J., Tower City.
Clark, Ida E., Madison.
Coe, H. W., Mandan.
Coe, M. W., Mandan.
Cohen, E , Lead City.
Collins, E. E., Vermillion.
Compton, D. D., Webster.
Coplow, A. B., Altoona.
Corliss, Grey C. H., Grand Forks.
Craig, G. H., Britton.
Crow, J. M., Mitchell.
Culver, G. E., Vermillion.
Culver, M. A., Britton.
Davis, Lizzie, Hillsboro.
Davis, Mrs., Rapid City.
Dudley, Mrs. E. C., Yankton.
Dye, Eugene A., Mellette.
Elder, F. E., Sioux Falls.
Ericson, E. C., Elk Point.
Ertle, F. E., Arlington.
Eyre, Wm., Dawson
Ferguson, S. S., Scotland.
Ferguson, A., Grand Forks.
Ferguson, Charles, Washington.
Fuller, Mrs. C. M., Fargo.
Gates, R. D., Rapid City.
Goodham, W. C., Deadwood.
Gunderson, Valford A., Sioux Falls.
Gunderson, V. M., Sioux Falls.
Hasky, F. A., Lead City.
Hammond, P. K., Bath.
Hassom, Mrs. Geo., Elk Point.
Hecht, Mrs. Wm., Rapid City.
Henry, J. B., Rapid City.
Huntley, E. T., Hitchcock.
Hurlburt, H. M., Arvilla.
Isham, C. B., Canton.
Jewett, C. A., Aberdeen.
Jewett, M. E., Aberdeen.
Katz, Mrs. H., Yankton.
Keene, N. H., Madison.
Kelley, W. A., Caledonia.
Kennedy, Joseph, Hillsboro.
Kerr, R. F., Brookings.
Kidney, Eugene E., Ashton.
Kratz, H. E., Mitchell.
Kratz, L. M., Mitchell.
Krogness, C. G., Canton.
Luckerby, G., Grand Forks.
Lapham, S. P., Brookings.
Lapham, Mrs. S. P., Brookings.
Leger, Lewis, Aberdeen.
Lilley, George, Brookings.
Little, George E., Washington.
Love, George, Hoven.
Lyon, Julia, Jamestown.
Mallery, G. E., Howard.
Mastin, Mrs. E., Canton.
Mastin, R. D., Mitchell.
Mathias, J. W., Bismark.
McCartney, L., Sioux Falls.
McClellan, T. C., Pierre.
McFarlan, Mrs. J S., Huron.
McFarland, George A., Scotland.
McKean, Mrs. A. B., Sioux Falls.
McNamara, E., Rapid City.
Merrill, Mrs. N. H., Huron.
Messner, M., Valley City.
Morse, E. A., Huron.
Morse, Mrs. E. A., Huron.
Mosel, F. C., Fargo.
Mullen, R. W., Lead City.
Nilendacker, H. W., Rapid City.
Nilendacker, Mrs. H. W., Rapid City.
Norris, Ella L., Pierre.
Orr, Mrs. C. M., Pierre.
Parlee, W. H., Huron.
Partridge, Colister, Vermillion.
Pickett, S., St. Lawrence.
Poole, F. J., Ipswich.
Reed, W. H., Rapid City.
Rider, Ora, La Moure.
Roeder, M., Huron.
Rogers, Kate, Canton.
Ruggles, Mrs. W. R., Ipswich.
Saunders, W. H., Pierre.

DAKOTA. (*Continued.*)

Sheffer, Mrs. George C., Altoona.
Schnosse, G., Rapid City.
Scott, Mrs. A., Altoona.
Scholer, Cora M., Huron.
Skaken, J. J., Ipswich.
Skaken, Mrs. J. J., Ipswich.
Smith, A. J., Brookings.
Stead, Eloise, Arlington.
Steele, J. W., Canton.
Stein, A., Fargo.
Stein, A., Washpeton.
Stillman, G. P., Fargo.
Strong, H., St. Thomas.
Strong, Mrs. H., St. Thomas.
Tarner, C. B., Grand Forks.
Taylor, A. E., St. Thomas.
Taylor, Mary J., St. Thomas.
Taylor, Mrs. S. T., Fairmont.
Terwilliger, Mrs. Lu, Mt. Vernon.
Thayer, C. E., Wessington Springs.
Tittle, Helen S., Rapids City.
Topping, Henry, Pierre.
Updyke, N. A., Brookings.
Updyke, S. G., Brookings.
Van Tassel, F. L., Yankton.
Van Ostrand, A. M., Yankton.
Vedder, Albert, Huron.
Vigness, L. A., Canton.
Voorns, Effie A., Pierre.
Voorns, Mary C., Pierre.
Walling, M. L., Huron.
Wagoner J. P., Yankton.
Wells, Frank, Jr., Yankton.
Whalen, H. A., Madison.
White, Jno. E., Sanborn.
Whittlesey E., Mitchell.
Wilde, Samuel, Mitchell.
Williams, E. M., Mt. Vernon.
Wood, G. A., Millbank.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Ellett, K. L., A-to-ka Muscogee.

MONTANA.

Brightbill, E. F., Virginia City.
Houston, M. F., Bozeman.
Howard, Charles L., Helena.
Jackman, C. S., Helena.
Keyes, Ollie, Foesythe.
Mattoon, A. M., Bozeman.
McCormick, Mrs. P., Junction City.
Nelson, Owen, Laramie City.
Slocum, E. B., Helena.

NEW MEXICO.

Koneman, W. A., Socorro.
Lord, Fred, Las Vegas.

UTAH.

Anderson, Edward H., Ogden,
Dickey, Elizabeth S., Salt Lake City.
Stewart, W. M., Salt Lake City.
Williams, P. L., Lalt Lake City.

WASHINGTON.

Cushman, A. E., Walla Walla.
Dumars, J. L., Walla Walla.
McBride, A. T., Colfax.

WYOMING.

Bonnett, G. P., Sundance.
Churchill, J. O., Cheyenne.
Churchill, Mrs. J. O., Cheyenne.
Clark, Sarah, Perry.
Hallock, C. S., Evanston.
Lytle, S. J., Laramie City.
Nelson, Aven, Laramie City.
Smith, Mrs. L. W., Carbon.

ALASKA.

Jackson, Sheldon,

MANITOBA.

Clarkson, J., Winnipeg.
Christie, W. J., Winnipeg.
Cye, Michael, Winnipeg.
McBean, D. G., Winnipeg.
McIntire, W. A., Winnipeg.
Parmenter, M. E., Winnipeg.
Peddie, B. R., Winnipeg.

MEXICO.

Bryce, P. C., Monterey.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Allison, David, Halifax.

ONTARIO.

Ettinger, J. G., Testowell.
McMahon, Mary, Prescott.
White, R. M., Dresden.
White, Mrs. R. M., Dresden.

RESIDENCE UNKNOWN.

Alexander, L.
Axon, F.
Baker, Horace.
Baker, H. W.
Balisl, O.
Barland, E.
Barlow, N. L.
Bean, E. A.
Belonger, Mary.
Blau, J.
Blood, T. L.
Bowen, C. E.
Bower, Lee E.
Boyd, Adela.
Boylson, Minnie.
Brown, R. C.
Bufford, A.
Carter, Gertrude.
Carter, Pauline.
Clajer, Felix.
Clott, B.
Compt, P. L.
Coole, Agnes.
Coole, Mrs. J. F.
Cross, P. L.
Curtiss, Jennie.
Cuyer, Ida L.
Daniels, Preston.
Daniels, Mrs. Preston.
Davies, Emma E.
DeWitt, Mrs. C. E.
DeRone, F.
Derland, Jno.
Drake, C. H.
Dunn, M. A.
Edmonds, C. V.
Eggisberger, A.
Enger, C. L.
Engberg, A.
Evarden, Minnie.
Ewing, W. O.
Flint, A. P.
Frair, N.
Francis, C. S.
Gafney, Jas.
Gano, A. P.
Gay, August.
Green, E. F.
Greenwood, A.
Griswold, M. F.
Hale, Mrs. S. J.
Hall, B. B.
Hambleton, J. C.
Hampton, Mary.
Hampton, Rufus.
Harrison, W. A.
Harrison, W. H.
Henmann, Mrs. Leonora.
Hevekerel, W.
Higgins, E. B.
Holmes, A. B.
Horn, Jesse R.
Hoyt, W. H.
Hubert, P.
Humphrey, M. C.
Humphrey, S. J.
Hurbrow, L. B.
Inger, I. J.
Ingraham, Geo. W.
Jackson, F. T.
James, T.
Jones, Mrs. E. A.
Kaysor, Chas.
Keller, J. K.
Kelly, R. C.
Kernam, F. N.

Kimball, Carrie F.
LaBary, Chas.
LaFever, G.
Langford, U. G.
Langley, F. E.
Laundre, Louis
Lloyd, H.
Marr. H.
Martin, W. P.
Maushan, E.
McKee, Hattie.
McMillan, G.
Michael, Mrs.
Michaels, Wm. H.
Miller, C. R.
Mitchell, E. W.
Montgomery, C. S.
Moore, Jno. G.
Maughlin, W. J.
O'Connor, J. C.
Odin, M. A.
Oliver, John.
Olmstead, J. D.
Paulin, T.
Paulin. J.
Peacock. S. E.
Pelland, P.
Pierson, E. B.
Pond, Mrs. Chas. M.
Porter, Mrs. J. N.
Potter, Etta.
Provost, Jno B.
Putnam, C. E.
Reid, W. R.
Reque, L. E.
Reynolds, Dora.
Rice, P. F.
Richards, D. F.
Richardson, Mrs. J.
Rohenkohl, B.
Rordon, John E.
Rossum, R.
Salmon, C.
Schrader, T.
Scott, H. G.
Scott, Jean.
Sedgwick.
Shure, Lora M.
Smith, Mrs. A. T.
Smith, Mrs. D. W.
Smith. J. S.
Sook, J.
Spain, Maggie.
Stenland, Bertha.
Stover, J.
Summers, J. F.
Tayler, J. P.
Thacher, C. I.
Tomkins, Bessie.
Trumbo Jennie.
Trunkley, J.
Weynuerts, Ada.
Wheeler, H. C.
White, H. L.
White, William I.

APPENDIX.

COMMENTS OF THE CHICAGO PRESS.

COMMENTS OF THE CHICAGO PRESS.

IMPRESSIONS OF THE CONVENTION EXPRESSED IN NEWSPAPER REPORTS AND EDITORIALS.

IN ANTICIPATION.

In reference to the approaching event, the *Tribune* said editorially: "The present week will witness an immense gathering of the educators of this country in our midst. They will come by thousands and discuss the problems of education until Friday next. The National Council has already been in session for two or three days, but the great army of school masters and mistresses will not begin to arrive until to-morrow. The pedagogical generals and heads of departments will be busy Monday and Tuesday, but the attack in force will not be made until Tuesday evening, when the incomparable Thomas orchestra will sound the signal and the thousands of instructors will be welcomed to the city by the mayor and other prominent official persons. After that the real work will begin. The Central Music Hall will be the centre of operations, but there will be overflow meetings at Farwell Hall, the Madison Street Theatre, the Chicago Opera House, the Board of Education rooms, the Clark Street Methodist Church, the Weber Music Hall, and elsewhere, for aught we know. Chicago will be brimming full of educators from every part of the country. The cities will be represented by prominent instructors and nearly every little village will send its "schoolma'am" to take part in the proceedings as a listener at least, to fraternize with her associates, to absorb new ideas, and to have a good time in the great place of summer resort. It will be a brainery of enormous dimensions for a week, and it will be a notable occasion in our educational history, for nothing that is done in Chicago is ever done by halves.

We lack the space to give any detailed accounts of the discussions which will be made, of the essays which will be read, or of the exhibits showing the progress of education and the extent of our educational appliances. Suffice it to say that their number is legion. The result of this aggregate wisdom and experience should be of great value, unless numbers darken counsel. Its purpose is as high and noble as any which can occupy the attention of men and women in a republic. It is responsible for the mental, and in a large degree for the moral, training of the young, and the future of the country will largely depend upon the manner in which the work is done. It is to be expected that the papers read before the convention will discuss the best methods of doing this and the best way of making the curriculum of the schools successful. Much of this may be purely technical and of interest only to the instructors themselves, but there is a point where the relations of the public and the instructors touch, in the settlement of which the former feels a vital and rapidly increasing interest. And what better topic can engage the attention of these representative instructors of the country than how to utilize their time and resources so as not only to make instruction academic but practically useful? Manual training is destined to be the corner-stone of our free-school system. Is it not time for a convention of this kind to recognize that plowing, sowing, reaping, building, carving, fabricating, designing, forging, moulding, cooking, sewing, and all the functions of agricultural, mechanical, and domestic artisanship are the essentials of the future prosperity of the republic, and that instruction in these methods may be profitably substituted for some of the higher academic branches ? "

Commenting on the same event, the *Inter-Ocean* said: " The inauguration last Tuesday of the twenty-seventh annual meeting of the National Educational Association will give to Chicago a convention of far greater importance and significance than the two she is to have next summer, though the political assemblies will make more noise in the land. Since the organization of the association in 1857, it has grown from humbleness to power, so great and notable is its membership, so decisive and productive is its influence in promoting the higher education of this country, so intelligently has it grappled with the problems of instruction many of which it has successfully solved, others of which it is in a fair way to solve. This is the second time that Chicago has been honored by the deliberative presence of the association, the first meeting having been held in 1863; and now that the body has gathered strength and greatly enlarged itself, its welcome to one of the representative educational centres of the country will be the more cordial.

" There was something of special fitness in the selection of Chicago as the scene of the association's most imposing and important convention. Not only is this essentially a convention city but, more to the purpose, it is one of the most forward communities in the encouragement of educational aims and purposes, and has a school system, the noble fame of which, has gone abroad as an example of high achievement. The pupil who graduates from the schools of Chicago has a better average education than that guaranteed to the public school pupils of any other city in America. The standard is higher, the methods more comprehensive; results are more thorough, and, though the aim may be no higher, the accomplishment is in the main much better. This is a good atmosphere in which to discuss measures and theories relating to the advancement of the human understanding and the application of principles to insure the practical usefulness of particular forms of education. It is anticipated there will be 8,000 persons in attendance upon this convention, and, as membership is open to any person in any way connected with the work of education, it may be imagined what a wide mental scope the body commands.

" It need hardly be stated that the object of the association is to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in this country. It is concerned with the needs of the hour, but it is particularly devoted to the requirements of the future; and few persons who have not given close personal attention to matters of education are aware how rapidly the broad question has developed within ten years, or how very different are the acknowledged obligations of to-day from the perceived duties of yesterday. An indication of the enlarged view of things is found in the scope and character of the outlined plan of papers and discussions that will engage the attention of the convention.

It was a great stride along the way of intellectual and moral progress when the National Teachers' Association was formed, and the growth and prosperity of that body has proven how great a work was ready to its hand; and the character of popular education in this country attests splendidly the wholesome value and vital benefit of that influence during the past twenty-five years. An educational revolution has been in progress that has not yet reached a culmination. It is at full tide, but still accumulative and expansive, and it can only be that the Chicago convention will send other creative pulsations thrilling through the country to make a great difference by way of gain in the school standards of the next decade."

THE OPENING DAY.

"The people of Chicago will give the pedagogues a hearty welcome and unstinted hospitality," said the *Inter-Ocean* as the visiting teachers began to appear in the city, "and will hope to learn something new from this great convocation of minds. It will also do them good to come here and see the machinery of this great city in running order. They will enjoy the salubrity of its cool atmosphere, the beauty of its parks and drives, the lavishness of its bodily fare, the elegance of its buildings, the unusual variety of its entertainments, and perhaps they will take away with them something of the Chicago push and go, and some of her practical ideas for use in their educational system.

"There will be in the educational convention to-day hundreds of men who have made national reputations as educators, and many who have given the ordinary span of a man's life to earnest, laborious work closely identified with our educational progress. In no profession are there more enthusiasts than in that of the teacher, and in none are there more earnest and devoted men and women ready to sacrifice self and worldly ambition in the interest of profession.

"Many of the most earnest workers in convention to-day have served in threefold capacity as author, teacher, and editor, and that so many have clung to the profession through years of such toil as men in few other professions know, is evidence of great love for their chosen work.

As teacher, superintendent, commissioner, or college president, the real educator carries into his work that spirit which sanctifies the memory of men like Horace Mann, Finney, and Hopkins. Chicago, as much as any other city in the world, appreciates the work of the educators of this day, and prizes as much as any other community the work of those who lead the way. Because this is so the members of this convention will find themselves among congenial people and, we hope, in a stimulating atmosphere."

In a subsequent edition the same paper said: "It is pleasant, without depreciating the value of 'Olympic dust,' to know that there are as many strangers gathered in Chicago to-day by attraction of the National Educational Association, as any rivalry of horses has ever drawn to us. The National Base Ball League has drawn its thousands; the Educational Association has its ten thousand. The games and the literature of Greece and Rome had their best periods concurrently.

"There are now men with us who have borne 'the burden and the heat of the day,' men who are in the morning, in the noon, and in the evening of their work; men who dreamed of a wider range of school studies and more effective modes of teaching when the school-house was generally built of logs or clapboards and was always small, the teacher the friend of 'the trustees,' and the curriculum embracing no more than 'the three R's;' men who have aided in the transformation of city common schools to the semblance of the academy, and the high schools to the degree of colleges; and men who have made friendly, but not unavailing, protest against the super-multiplicity of studies by which the school system at one time seemed likely to be deluged.

"Thousands of younger teachers have gathered to see and hear these men, and to behold the works of the pupils of the schools of many States. And what a wonderful exhibit these works do make! From the clay cube of the six-year old child in the kindergarten to the steam engine made in all its parts by the hands of the "big boys" of the manual training school; from the irregular "outline drawing" of a pupil of some "primary department" to the painting could safely stand the criticism of a frequenter of the best art salons. Eye and hand, memory and mind, have been taxed to show teachers what the taught can accomplish.

"It is but a few years ago—so late as the time of the Centennial Exposition—that the idea of holding an educational exhibit was discouraged by some of the most famous educators; "the stone which the builders rejected has become a corner-stone." The grand exhibit now opened to the people without money or price is an exemplification of the history of education teaching by example. It has also a suggestion of what liberty is doing toward enlightening the world.

"The first session of the National Educational Association will be held this evening in the Exposition Building. This grand institution was organized at Philadelphia in 1857, under the name of the National Teachers' Association, by leading teachers from various sections of the country. James L. Enos was chairman of the first meeting, William E. Sheldon, its first secretary, and A. J. Rickoff its first treasurer.

"Among the more prominent visitors in attendance upon the convention are many who have won high distinction in educational circles throughout the country. The list includes the following names: Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.; H. S. Jones, Erie, Pa.; E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio; Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.; F. A. Fitzpatrick, Leavenworth, Kan.; E. E. Higbee, Lancaster, Pa.; J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.; W. A. Mowry, Boston, Mass.; S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.; D. L. Kiehle, Minneapolis; Miss Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.; C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.; Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.; James H. Baker, Denver, Col.; Aaron Gove, Denver, Col.; William E. Sheldon, Boston; J. H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.; Miss M. S. Cooper, Oswego, N. Y.; R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, Ohio; General John Eaton, Marietta, Ohio; L. S. Thompson, Lafayette, Ind.; G. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.; H. M. James, Omaha, Neb.; Mrs. Delia Lathrop Williams, Delaware, Ohio; F. W. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa; E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.; Andrew J. Rickoff, New York; J. S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind.; H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.; J. W. Andrews, Marietta, Ohio; J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.; D. N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.; Robert Allyn, Carbondale, Ill.; J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ill.; J. W. Dickinson, Boston; W. N. Hailman, LaPorte, Ind.; John Hancock, Chillicothe, Ohio; F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.; N. H. Calkins, New York; J. Baldwin, Huntsville, Texas; James H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kan.; Emerson. E. White, Cincinnati, Ohio; Dr. B. Hinsdale, Cleveland, Ohio; Eli T. Tappan, Gambler, Ohio; F. W. Parker, Normalville, Ill.; W. W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn., and many others.

"The association has held twenty-six meetings as follows: Two at Philadelphia, 1857, 1879; one at Cincinnati, 1858; Washington, 1859; Buffalo, 1850; Chicago, 1863; Ogdensburg, 1864; Harrisburg, 1865; Indianapolis, 1866; Nashville, 1868; Trenton, 1869; Cleveland, 1870; St. Louis, 1871; Boston, 1872; Elmira, 1873; Detroit, 1874; Minneapolis, 1875; Baltimore, 1876; Louisville, 1877; Chautauqua, 1880; Atlanta, 1881; three at Saratoga, 1882, 1883, 1885; Madison, 1884; Topeka, 1886. There were no meetings in 1861, 1862, 1867, 1878.

"'All Teachers Register Here,' is a large cardboard sign which immediately strikes the eye of every one who enters the Exposition Building. A huge register, alphabetically arranged by States, lies on a desk which is presided over by Mr. W. C. Payne, of South Chicago, who has already acquired the 'smile that is childlike and bland' of an old hotel clerk. He is perhaps the most envied man of the association, because every pretty school-ma'am who comes in at once steps up to his desk and smiles bewitchingly as she accepts the proffered pen with which she inscribes her dainty autograph. All day yesterday they thronged around the register like bees around a molasses barrel."

Another report reads: "The pride of America is its public school system. The land is dotted with school houses from the Pacific to the Atlantic and from British

America to the Gulf of Mexico. There is no body of workers, no profession or class that deserves so much honor or respect as the noble army of school teachers. To a great degree their lives are given to the work of education, and there is nothing so wearing as this labor. The annual session of the National Educational Association affords them an opportunity for a trip to the Convention City. The convention of 1887 will be held in this city.

AT THE EXPOSITION BUILDING.

"There has been many a gathering in the Exposition Building which has filled the vast area of space in the homely structure with brilliant audiences. Men who frame the political history of the country have met there; fashion's devotees dancing for sweet charity's sake have enjoyed themselves there; Italian singers have warbled their notes there; the 'bone and sinew of the country' have come there to pass criticism upon bovines and porkers; merchants and industrial princes have held expositions there which may truly be termed world's bazars; other bazars have been held there for orphans and other unfortunate ones—in short, there has been hardly a gathering or convention of any kind in this great city of conventions which has not in some shape or other crystalized in the rumbling old building on the lake front. Last night the delegates of the National Educational Association met there, which means that several thousand school "marms," together with the sterner sex who hammer away at the youth of this country, metaphorically speaking, gathered in the great hall. It was a great sight, and great was the crowd. Like anything that Chicago undertakes, there was nothing small about it.

"Compared with other assemblages in which the fair sex participates, a convention of school teachers deserves 'to move up one higher.' Much as has been said about the hard lot of the lady teacher, she doesn't show at a public gathering that there is anything about her calling for sympathy. She rather invites admiration, and the judicious distribution of attentive squires among the ladies would seem to demonstrate that there is no lack of admirers. The rumor that there were girls who have attended every one of the thirty annual conventions of the National Educational Association must be set down as base slander, because those that could be seen in the sea of faces, as the society reporter would advantageously put it, were not half old enough. That is as near as the scribe dares to go touching the delicate question of experience.

"There is another point in which the gathering of the pedagogues compares favorably with the purely society event—the girls were promptly on hand at the appointed hour. They did not wait for the overture to be disposed of and then sail proudly down the aisle with a stage eclipse on their hair and a tournure large enough for a reserved seat, as ultra-fashion dictates. When the word was passed around that Theodore Thomas would play for an hour, beginning at 8 o'clock, before the delegates would be sacrificed to listen to half a dozen speeches, they were promptly on hand, filling every seat provided for and a good many more which had been hastily improvised. It should also be stated that they make their dressmakers work in all the material that ought to be in the front elevation of a dress. None of them was liable to catch cold on account of bare shoulders. Taken all in all, between a 'society event,' and a teachers' convention, the latter is by far the most respectable-looking, and as far as good looks are concerned—but then comparisons are always odious.

"Five minutes after the appointed hour there wasn't a seat to be had in the building; not only was the main floor crowded, but also the galleries, and not a few of the more ardent delegates had climbed upon the booths and pavilions used by Marshal Field and others at exposition times. W. E. Sheldon, of Boston, President of the Association, was right when he said in his opening remarks: 'There is in this world but one Chicago; there is in this world but one Theodore Thomas orchestra; there is in this world but one city that can extend such a musical greeting as the one which has inspired our souls to-night; and there is but one body of men and women, and the one gathered here, which is so representative of glorious manhood and pure womanhood.'

"Twenty thousand people, several thousand more than could find seats, crowded into the Exposition Building last evening. It was a marvelous throng, in which there were three women to every man. The audience was a sea of bonnets and light dresses. The great gallery was as completely crowded as the floor. The night was warm, but five thousand fans were aflutter and the open windows admitted a breath of air from the lake. A few front seats were reserved for the president of the National Educational Association, the speakers of the evening, members of the National Council and local committeemen. A detail of municipal police were present to preserve order and regularity in the audience. They had no work to do except to look fine, and once in a great while to help out the ushers, when a pretty school teacher was found looking for a seat. Hundreds of men and women could not get within seeing distance of the platform, and they sat or strolled through the evergreens in the rear, crowded the restaurant, and almost mobbed the lemonade department.

"From eight to nine o'clock the programme was a Thomas concert. About half of the full musical entertainment of an evening was furnished by Colonel Theodore's matchless orchestra. The celebrated leader was applauded when he stepped to his stand promptly at eight o'clock. He looked warm, and was compelled frequently to mop his rosy face with a large white silk handkerchief. The orchestra part of the programme was arranged by request. At least, it was so said in the bill. The following was the programme rendered:

Festival Overture		Lassen
Rhapsody No. 2		Liszt
Introduction Nuptial Chorus March Movement	Third Act Lohengrin	Wagner
Waltz—"Beautiful Blue Danube,"		Strauss
Rakoczy March		Berlioz

"Though there was a respectable force of ushers, the aisles were soon overflown by the eager crowds, and were filled with standing women clear up to the platform. The steps to the rostrum were crowded with pretty girls. No sooner had they taken their places there, within two feet of Mr. Thomas' harper, than that nervous performer broke one of his harp cords with a loud twang. The members of the orchestra smiled, Mr. Thomas glared at the blushing harper, and that young man set industriously to work to fix his broken string. It were folly to speak of the excellencies of the music. The airs from Lohengrin and Strauss's lovely waltz were familiar to nearly all the hearers, and were, for that reason, the more heartily enjoyed. Every selection was heartily applauded."

"Never, except at the time of the great national political conventions, has there been so large an audience in the Exposition Hall as there was last night on the occasion of the opening session of the National Educational Association. And it was a superb audience, the great mass of earnest and intellectual people making a picture that will be memorable even in this city that has seen so many tremendous and historic gatherings. The opening exercises, taking in the concert by Theodore Thomas's orchestra, the addresses of welcome and the responses made up a programme worthy of the great occasion."

THE EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL WORK.

"The National Educational Exposition is one of the most remarkable exhibits of school work ever seen. To persons past middle life who remember their own school days—the days of 'rod' and 'taws,' of Daboll's arithmetic and Kirkham's grammar, of Latin at eight and Greek at twelve years of age—it must seem astounding. Not all the speeches and lectures that will be pronounced during the session of the association will more clearly explain the difference between the old methods of teaching and the new, and the actual achievements of modern teaching, than this wonderful illustration of what training has done and is doing for the school children of the present time.

"Such an exhibit is comparatively a new thing with the association. The first one that properly could be called such was at the meeting held in Madison, Wis., in 1884, which was principally a Wisconsin exhibit, and the next was in Topeka, Kas., in 1886, which was also mainly local. At Saratoga, N. Y., in 1885, there was an art exhibit, but not the ordinary work of the schools. When the association accepted the invitation of the Chicago teachers to hold the meeting of 1887 in this city, Mr. Albert G. Lane, the county superintendent, was appointed director of the exhibit, and it is owing to his zeal and to the efficiency of his secretary, Mr. J. W. Troeger, as well as to the hearty cooperation of teachers and educators throughout the country, that such a marvelous display has been made. Inasmuch as the meeting was to be held at a time when the centennial anniversary of the adoption of the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwestern Territory would occur, a particular effort was made to show the results of education in the five States which were formed of that territory, one of the compacts in that famous ordinance being that "schools and the means of education should forever be encouraged." While Mr. Lane corresponded with educators throughout the entire United States, he addressed himself particularly to obtaining State aid for their own school exhibits in Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio—the five States created under the ordinance of 1787. In this he was but partially successful, obtaining an appropriation of $2,500 from the legislature of Illinois and $2,000 from the legislature of Wisconsin, the other legislatures taking no action. The result is that in the exhibit Illinois and Wisconsin bear away the palm in extent and variety of work, though the other States are represented, as well as schools from the East, South, and West, as shown below. But the work exhibited shows the progress of education throughout the entire country quite as completely as if every school district in the land were represented.

"The main exhibition embraces school-work from kindergartens, from rural, graded, high, normal, and industrial schools, from colleges, and from institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, and feeble-minded, and from reformatory schools. There is also an art department and various annexes showing all kinds of school furniture, apparatus, maps and charts, supplies, text-books, school architecture, including models, plans, and elevations, and other belongings of schools and school-houses.

"Illinois has representatives from twenty-two counties, as well as the various public institutions, such as the Reform School at Pontiac, the Asylum for the Blind, and the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb at Jacksonville. Over one of the

Illinois booths is inscribed the word 'Egypt,' containing a very fine display from the southernmost county of the State, and showing that however it may have been in former times, darkness no longer reigns there.

"Chicago is represented by sixty-nine grammar schools, three high schools, one evening high school, and one manual training school. The Normal University of Cook County makes also a splendid display.

"Wisconsin makes the next finest exhibit, being represented by high and graded schools from eighteen counties, and also from the School for the Blind at Janesville, the School for the Deaf and Dumb, and several industrial schools.

"Indiana is represented by schools from Lafayette and La Porte, and by the Rose Polytechnic School at Terre Haute.

"Ohio has displays of general school work from Youngstown and Cleveland and from the manual training school at Toledo.

"Michigan has representatives from three counties and Iowa from one. Minnesota sends an exhibit from Winona; Colorado, one from the Institution for the Feeble-Minded at Golden Gate; Tennessee, from the Young Ladies' College at Nashville; and Louisiana, from the public schools of New Orleans.

"One of the most striking features of the exhibit is the wonderful influence of the Froebel system of instruction, as shown in the public schools, even when there are no kindergartens, the teachers seeming to have caught an inspiration from it. One cannot admire the exhibits of the Chicago public schools as shown at this exposition without being struck by the similarity of the work to that of the kindergartens pure and simple.

"Take it altogether, the kindergarten department is perhaps the most interesting, for the reason that the work is that of children from four to seven years of age, and shows the harmonious development of all the various faculties of a child, and in strange contrast to the old A B C system. There are three booths which exhibit the work of the Froebel Association and the Free Kindergarten of Chicago, and the Training School at La Porte, illustrating all the uses of the "gifts and occupations." The other booths show the actual work of the children. While all these have particular features of interest and show the individuality which the system gives to every child, the description of one of them will convey a good idea of all. It might be said perhaps that to the casual observer the work is not attractive, but when it is understood that it is a fair average of the pupil's unaided effort, and that in no case has the pupil been aware that the work would be exhibited, it increases in attraction. Entering the booth where Mrs. Loring's display is to be seen, after examining the usual and regular work of the children, one's attention is attracted by several specimens of a very unique kind. One is the portrait of Washington decorated by the spontaneous invention of the children to illustrate such knowledge as they had acquired of the Father of his Country. One child made his hatchet, being perhaps most influenced by the wonderful incident in Washington's life connected with that implement. Another made a three-cornered hat for him, and another presented his idea of the Presidential chair. These articles are made of jointed slats, one of the kindergarten 'gifts.'

"Children's illustrations in clay from the Iliad are also rather curious. The children in school were told by the teacher one day a story from Homer. Of their own volition they attempted to reproduce the story in clay. They accordingly made Priam's palace, Hector's home, and Paris's house, as they named them. Marks of the chariot wheels are also shown in the plain before Troy. They made also the ships of the Greeks, and the famous wooden horse that was the final cause of Troy's downfall. They also show the cave of Polyphemus; and the halls of Circe, so unfortunate for the companions of Ulysses, they show by a pigsty, so great was their contempt for that classical place. These things were the work of children of five years of age, and, being somewhat out of the ordinary line, are mentioned to show the scope of a training which seems confined to a few simple 'gifts.' The other booths in this department represent work of children in the Chicago charity kindergartens, in the Muskegon kindergartens, and the kindergarten in the school for the blind at Janesville, Wis. This last is a wonderful illustration of how this sort of instruction, which deals in form, dimension, and color, may be taught children who have never seen the light of day. Here may be seen maps, clay models of various animals, and a very interesting story of 'Jack and the Bean Stalk,' modeled in clay representing Jack, the man with the beans, the bean stalk, Jack's mother, the giant and the giant's wife, the bag of money, Jack's hatchet and house. There is also the goose with the golden egg, and jack in the oven. The other work is that of weaving and sewing and other things quite as perfect as that of the little ones who can see.

"Going from this department one is next interested in the work of the feeble minded children, on very much the same line but in some respects more mechanical. The several exhibits in this department are worth much more than a mere passing examination. The work of the deaf and dumb children has also many features of great interest, showing specimens of pen and ink sketches from nature; charcoal studies from nature and the casts; crayon, water-color, and oil studies from nature, still life, and the casts. A very fine portrait of Prof. Gaulladet, of the Deaf and Dumb Institute at Washington city, adorns one of these booths. They also have a fine display of wood-carving and clay-modeling, and in the industrial department cabinet-work, shoe-making, and printing.

"The Reform School exhibit is mainly industrial work, and makes an excellent display.

"The various manual training schools make a very remarkable display, showing the great strides this system of education has made in the last few years. They deserve much more than a passing notice, and are worthy of a careful study by all visitors to the Exposition.

"The Normal School at Normal, Ill., has also a splendid exhibit, showing the work done at that institution under the management of Col. Parker. It is very interesting and instructive.

"The art exhibit in the galleries contains a wider representation from the various States than the main exhibit. It shows constructive, representative, and decorative drawing, modeling in clay, carving in wood, painting and designs from nature. It is all the work of pupils in the various graded public schools throughout the country. Those who are interested in the way children are taught in these days can do no better than spend a day in this marvelous exposition of children's school-work."

As a sample of newspaper comment on this collection of school handicraft, the *Evening Journal* said, "The Exposition Building itself would not contain the books that might be written in praise and otherwise (but chiefly in praise) of the wealth of juvenile effort now gathered together inside the walls of that vast structure. A mere catalogue of the schools and institutions from whose brains and hands have come examples of adult care operating upon youthful industry, and of infant power made evident by reason of kindly tuition, would almost tire an average auctioneer. It is pleasant, however, to dart from one corner to another of the exhibition, and to make note, however imperfectly, of some of the interesting testimonies to tutorial assiduity and boyish and girlish power which meet the observer on every hand. William Redenbaugh, of the Peoria high school, is laying up a rich store of material for agreeable use in future years. His botanical knowledge has been culled from meadow, mountain, and rill, as well as from books. His collection of polypetalous exogens and other specimens is refreshing to gaze upon, transplanting as it does the observer's mind from the crowding and turmoil of city life to cool prairie breezes and mossy banks of rippling rivulets. The mechanical drawings from the same school show that the practical arts are likewise well considered within its walls. The freehand art work from Peoria county runs the productions of Mr. Dimock's pupils pretty closely, though the preeminence of the latter is at present clearly established. Innumerable maps of the State of Illinois, of various grades of merit, are arranged for convenient inspection. The drawings from nature of the botanical classes of Evanston Township high school are noteworthy, particularly that by Miss Nellie Spaulding of a specimen of *orchis spectabilis*, with separate views of anther cells, labellium, etc. The freehand figures and examples of clay modeling also demand a passing word. Ottawa high school is richly represented by zoological essays and Jefferson high school boasts an extraordinary collection of botanical leaf and needlework exhibits. From the Manual Training School of Toledo, Ohio, come wood-work, surface drawings, and a profusion of designs in oblique and orthographic projection, together with pen and ink drawings, wood carvings, work in elementary, mechanical, perspective, and evidences that the young forgers of chisels and other useful tools have attained to no mean rank in their handicraft studies. Railroad surveys, mechanical drawings, etc., do great credit to the aspiring young people of the Rose Polytechnic Institute of Terre Haute, Ind., and the manual training department of the Omaha high school, with its planes, levels, and other implements, marked with the names of the youthful artificers, furnishes standing testimony to the latter's accuracy and skill in workmanship.

"On the western side of the building stands the 'museum,' or collection of the Chicago Academy of Sciences, containing geological, ornithological, conchological, zoological and other examples of animate and inanimate matter, antediluvian and modern. There are skeletons of the mighty mammoth, the megatherium of Cuvier, and other awe-exciting reminiscences of the ancient past, together with a most interesting collection of the present *fauna* of America.

"Another brief survey of the 'Art Exhibit' up-stairs reveals freehand and object drawing from the Cincinnati public schools and from those of St. Louis a course in drawing, some designs in paper-cutting, cardboard, wood-work, and clay-modeling, together with home exercises in freehand and botany of a high degree of merit. The free evening drawing schools of Worcester, Mass., perforce attract the attention of the peregrinatory critic. The drawings from the mechanical and other objects are superb, and the harmony of hues in the colored work evidences high artistic ability. The pencil figures from life and the architectural drawings are produced under the tuition of teachers who freely donate their time and energy to the development of juvenile taste and talent, and leave nothing to be desired. In the Massachusetts exhibition of industrial drawing are some fine designs for stained glass windows, also for public buildings and schooner yachts, to say nothing of the abundance of good pencil, pen-and-ink, and crayon sketches and anatomical drawing. The art work of the Chicago primary schools consists of innumerable exercises in simple line-drawing and clay-modeling, and in carefully and neatly manufactured minute hatchets, hammers, knives, etc. Then come the carpentry and cabinet work of the grammar and high schools, from whence also have been brought excellent wall-paper designs. Noble floral and figure drawings do high honor to the schools of this city; a tiger, by F. Stevens, calling, among other of these exhibits, for especial praise. After these there are more long lines of freehand and mechanical work from various schools, until the almost weary monotony of these forms of excellence is broken by the lovely display of oil and water-color paintings, from Wheaton College, Ill. 'A Winter Scene,' by Fannie Stacy, with its bare trees, snow, and generally bleak appearance, is magnificently executed in all respects, as also are a delightful waterfall scene, a river scene and some fruit and flower pieces. Of the entire art exhibit, it is probably just to award the palm between Worcester, Mass., and Wheaton, Ill., and Chicago; though there are some specimens of work from Columbus and Toledo, Ohio, of which those cities have certainly no reason to be ashamed.

"During these cursory glances at this most interesting exhibition, it is more than probable that many excellent things have been overlooked. Enough will have been said, however, to indicate in an imperfect degree, the power, both latent and active, which characterizes the mentality of the boys and girls of Chicago, and which, still further nurtured and directed by conscientious instruction, will one day make itself felt for good in this city and in this country."

The *Tribune*, after referring to the Centennial Exhibition, at Philadelphia, eleven years ago, and noting the advance in school work since that time, said: "The few scattered blades of grain then struggling up into the sunshine have developed into a field waving with a bountiful harvest. Then it was only here and there a school which was being conducted upon the development plan, while now it is evident the modern system of teaching is fast becoming general. Rural counties, remote from the centres of advanced thought, rival the large cities in their evidence of thorough conformity to the improved methods of education. A decade of silent revolution is demonstrated by these displays. The term education was a misnomer until of late. Instead of educing the faculties and calling the mind into play, the old method was to stuff it by memorization. The former method has already ceased to be a 'new-fangled notion,' and the superintendent or principal who is an educator, properly so called, is no longer looked upon as a crank.

"It is not to be supposed, however, that the new system, which is to the old what steam and electricity are to the stage coach of other days, has become general throughout the country. There are vast forests still to be felled and maiden prairies still to be broken up, large as is the area of cultivation now as compared with 1876. A few teachers here and there made a careful study of the Philadelphia school exhibit, and have been sowing the seeds of progressive ideas in pedagogics ever since; but the back counties which have not felt the pulsations of this new life are numerous. and the good work is still in its pioneer state. The chief benefit of this gathering of teachers in our city the present week will probably be derived from the object lessons taught in the expositional department. The addresses can be published and read in the quiet of home, but no description can do justice to school work in its various grades and departments. Every teacher should carefully study the really distinct features. For example, every school in Chicago has an exhibit of its own. besides what it may have contributed to the art department. It is not at all necessary to go through them all with critical care. Each has some individuality, but in a general way they are all alike, and to make a thorough study of some one is to form an idea of the system as it obtains in Chicago grammar schools, and no one who is fit to be at the head of a school or a network of schools can fail to get a fair conception of what may be done in calling out the child faculties instead of overloading them.

COMMENTS ON DAILY SESSIONS.

"Last evening's welcome may be said to be the first session of the ten thousand teachers here assembled," observed the *Inter-Ocean*, on the morning of July 12. "But, in reality the first session is that which opens to-day in Central Music Hall, when the real objects of the convention will be carried out as per programme. Every forenoon and evening will these teachers assemble there to listen to the discussions of subjects dear to them. Every afternoon the several departments of education will assemble in numerous halls and the afternoons will be spent in discussions of topics which are beneficial to teachers in these departments. The convention closes Friday evening, and on Saturday morning the young ladies will depart for their 10,000 homes, with food for mental digestion sufficient for another year. The pupils of America will be gainers thereby. No teacher who is here can go home and remain silent about, or unimproved by, her visit to Chicago. The exhibition of work and appliances is alone a great educator, and the thousands of teachers are carefully studying every detail of the exhibition. They cannot fail to go to their homes with many new ideas, and good must result."

Another paper said: "What was really the first business session of the National Educational Association was held in Central Music Hall, yesterday [Tuesday] morning. School always begins at nine o'clock and so did the association begin its session yesterday. The hall was literally filled—that is, the main floor and the first gallery. There were few school-masters in the audience—certainly not more than five per cent.—for the vast majority were of the feminine persuasion. A very large audience of ladies is invariably a pretty one, especially during warm weather, when only light costumes are worn; and unquestionably that of yesterday was not an exception. All parts of the country were thoroughly represented, and were it possible to present a composit photograph of the young and old, the good, bad, and indifferent schoolmarms present—difficulty would have been encountered in finding any coming under the last two desiguations—it would be an intellectual one in the highest degree, if not actually pretty. But it is not good looks but intelligence that the schoolteacher goes in for, so that the first premise is perhaps the absolutely correct one. The sight presented was bright and animated in the extreme, and certainly a set of speakers never had a more attentive audience. Everything said—and everything said was well said—was given the closest attention, and laughter or applause, as the case might be, was liberally but always appropriately bestowed."

On the character of the assemblage in attendance, the *Inter-Ocean* remarked: "The grand army of school teachers is in a great measure composed of young women. The male teacher is confined to the principals and professorships, while the thousands of the army are females. The convention is a grand vacation picnic for them. They come from every State and from villages, towns, and cities all over the country. They come in squads, couples, groups, troupes, companies, battalions, and regiments, too, for the Boston special train brought almost a regiment of Massachusetts teachers. Be this as it may, there is no mention of single visitors. Every teacher came with some other teacher. It would be impossible almost to find one of these teachers alone, they are a gregarious class and the fact is noticeable at present. They fill the restaurants and European hotels. Those financially able have made the Palmer House their stopping place, while the more wealthy have gone to the Grand Pacific and other hotels where full rates are charged. The school teacher is economical and wants to get the most she can for her money. She is independent to a degree beyond any other class of females. She combines her curiosity with her intellect and the result is shrewdness. The eachers fill the streets of Chicago; they can easily be designated from the in-lependent ways they have of minding their own business."

During the sojourn of this great body of educators in the city the Chicago press levoted a generous portion of newspaper space to daily comments on the subjects liscussed by the Association. The following extracts from editorials indicating how these discussions sounded to the reporters, and what the editors had to offer upon the several themes, are duly credited to the papers from which they are taken.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Never does an assemblage of teachers convene that some one does not adjure that it shall strive to "make education practical." There can be no education which is not practical; the question is, whither shall its practicableness tend? What is meant by "practical" depends much on the make-up of him or her to whom the word is addressed. And it has been too often addressed to teachers by speakers who themselves had the most ignoble conception of its meaning.

"Make education practical" has for the most part been intended by the advisers of teachers to signify, "make education resultant of dollars to the pupil; make it an irritant of an insane itch to produce more of something—more dollars, more steam engines, more mechanical inventions"—as if the production of wealth or the machinery for the production of wealth were of itself a thing to be denied. . . . . The usefulness or uselessness of education is as it teaches or fails to teach the use of machinery. Wealth and its appliances are machines for the production of the graces of life; education that leads to the evolution of grace in life is education in spirit and in truth. Education that leads to a belief in a multiplicity of steam engines or dollars as the supreme good, is education in fetich worship. The more steam engines and dollars in the world the better for it; provided that men are educated to the production of mental and spiritual graces from such machinery. The more wealth in the world the worse for it if the machinery of wealth be unused for high purposes. . . . .

Education is not altogether a thing of system or routine. That this Nation has not been vulgarly "practicalized" into rejection of everything that could not be directly productive of something good to eat or something good to buy or sell, is due to that sublime instinct which has modified system in our women teachers.

The best signs of the great convention of teachers now in progress is that instructors seem beginning to know what "practical" education ought to be. "Man doth not live by bread alone" is an old truth that seems to be meeting with a new recognition; the man who has hitherto talked of "practical" education has generally meant education which teaches how to make more bread. The exhibits from the best schools of four great States are an evidence of a system of education based on those great truths, "the life is more than bread, and the body than raiment."—*Inter-Ocean.*

It is gratifying to observe that both the mayor of the city and the president of the Chicago Board of Education in their addresses of welcome to the thousands of teachers belonging to the National Educational Association sought to impress upon them the value of manual as well as mental training and of combining industrial education with the teachings of the schools as the surest foundation for individual success and ultimate benefit to the State. Mr. Story in his assertion that "by giving more attention to scientific instruction and to the training of the hand and eye our public schools may be made to do much toward meeting the present requirements of industry, while the healthy reaction upon the schools themselves will be beneficial in giving to intellectual training a higher value in all classes of society," sounded the key note of the new reform which is taking such a strong hold upon our modern educational system.

The system of the past may be described as one intended to educate the wits to avoid manual labor. . . . Instruction has been academic. Its object has been to make good citizens with educated brains. If the work of the world were to be done by professional men and middlemen living off the products of others, the old curriculum of study and the old system of training could not be improved upon. But the law, divinity, and medical schools already grind out more professionals than are needed every year. The mercantile business is already overcrowded. The great majority of the 12,000,000 children now attending school will have to go out into the world and earn their living by their hands. . . . The aim of the school is, therefore, should be to equip the pupils with the appliances for making a living and send them out into the world prepared for the great struggle of existence. Instead of educating their wits to avoid labor, we need an education of both wits and hands, one which will educate the pupil how to produce of himself and how to improve the productive processes of others, instead of being content to live off their productions.—*Tribune.*

There will be some dissent from certain views presented before the educational convention yesterday with reference to the question of manual training in the public schools. While there was a common opinion as to the desirability of some practical instruction in mechanical branches, most of the gentlemen who discussed the question spoke of manual training in contradistinction to industrial education, and one went so far as to declare that trades or professions should not be taught in the public schools.

This proposition opens up a perplexing subject, one that, with the present slight experience in the new field of education, few are prepared to treat very positively, and which even those with strong convictions must approach modestly. It would seem, however, that manual training, as it is understood by some of its advocates, does not promise to meet the ends of those who feel that youths should be taught the practical exercise of their aptitudes, physically as well as mentally, that they should be able to do, as well as to understand. It is held that manual training will prove a help to general education if it does no more than afford recreation and rest to pupils by calling other faculties into play. General Francis A. Walker, one of the most earnest advocates of manual training in the schools, seems to value it for this advantage chiefly, and for the greater interest of pupils and parents in school work it will awaken. . . . The grand aim of education is to make useful men. We do not care so much that a man is dexterous, as that his dexterity has productive value. In short, it is not manual training but industrial education we need in connection with our public school system of instruction. It is not enough that pupils should learn how a thing is done; they should be taught to do the thing. Mr. Ham struck the key note of the whole matter when he said, "man's curse had been his struggle to avoid work." Theoretic education, we may be pardoned for saying, has had something to do with the spread of this curse. The education of the mind alone is hurtful to the best and broadest interests of society. The world does not need thinkers more than it requires workers; and while our form of education teaches the youth how to think, it is desirable that a kindred course should instruct him how to apply his knowledge. . . . There are many things to be considered in connection with manual or industrial education in our schools. The differences in city and country schools must be taken into account in estimating the value of such training as an adjunct of the public school. It may be accepted, however, that the chief need of this work of instruction is in great cities where the wealth is greatest and where competition is most serious. The graduate of the high school should have a definite idea of his future employment, and should be as well prepared to enter upon that employment as a two-years' active apprentice. Not only would this afford a valuable saving in time, but it would rescue many young men from aimless lives in a from-pillar-to-post existence.—*Inter Ocean.*

THE KINDERGARTEN.

It is to the kindergarten system that society is indebted for the most successful reassertion of the fundamental object of education, and for the most successful application of means to its accomplishment. The displays of work accomplished by children between the ages of six and thirteen years, now visible at the exhibition of the National Educational Association, are conclusive evidence of the wide, if not universal, diffusion of the artistic faculty. It is all but impossible to believe that the same young hand that made the vain effort to produce that simplest of forms, a "finite right line" in September, had acquired skill to draw and combine in original designs the segments of circles and the varying angles of many-sided figures by the succeeding June, but the work is there to show for itself; not the work of one exceptionally endowed child, but the work of many children of merely ordinary skill. Nor has the hand alone been trained; the eye has been educated in the proprieties of color, the mind has been led to the orderly logic of composition of form, and from this has followed orderly arrangement of thought and knowledge of color in words. The infantile manuscripts in the La Porte exhibit are not less admirable than the infantile essays in plastic art.—*Inter-Ocean.*

THE SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE.

In discussing the relations of the university, college, and higher technological schools to the public system of instruction our educational friends presented some interesting and valuable views. It was especially gratifying to find the subject treated with such candor, for the reason that there has long been a suspicion that the higher institutions lack cordial sympathy with the public system, inclining to underestimate the actual value of the work performed, representatives of the higher institutions viewing with an air of condescending patronage what they almost regard as elementary steps. President Angell, of Michigan University, one of the most liberal of educators, showed himself one of that wise, small army that esteems education as a unit, all its branches and phases being interdependent, recognizes the fact that, though the university preceded and helped build the lower schools, standing in the relation of parent to child, the university is aided in reaching higher elevations by the growing excellence of the lower schools. . . . President Strong, of Carleton College, Minnesota, could not separate the responsibilities of educational work into school denominations. He described the beginning and end of education to be the formation of character, to make complete and symmetrical men, morally not less than intellectually. . . . There is after all no more to education than this, that a man shall come to know and to love the beautiful. It is more important that a man should know goodness than that he should be able to conjugate a Greek verb or quote a Latin proverb. Dr. Hopkins, of Emory College, Georgia, had this idea in mind, no doubt, when he discussed the danger of making the mind mechanical, instead of creative. In his opinion the business of education is to develop the true, and it is infinitely preferable that a man should be trained to think rightly than that he should be made the store-house of so-called information that may be reeled off under pressure as false evidence of education. . . . . All parts of it move in unison when the machinery is in order. But the prime consideration should not be lost sight of; the colleges are for the few, while the lower schools are for the many, and if we are to have good citizens, sound men, the lower schools must, besides being brought to the highest possible educational standard, inculcate those principles of morality virtue, and right conduct which combine to make up character. Given a proper public school system, we may let the universities take care of themselves. President Chamberlain, of the Wisconsin University, declares the business of the university to be to gather information, formulate it, and pour it forth into those institutions which look to it as a leader. . . . —*Inter-Ocean.*

CRITICISM.

It did not appear to occur to the members of this association that the carrying out of their recommendations might involve a larger expenditure of money than that derived from all the wealth of the country. Neither did it appear to occur to them that an army, navy, police force, local militia, courts, roads, bridges, street lights, sanitary regulations, and the support of the sick and indigent were matters regarded by others as highly important to the welfare of the community. No one ventured to estimate what the expense of sustaining the system of education they recommended would be, or how the money could be raised for supporting it, without depriving the great mass of people of the common comforts of life. The economic management of schools received no attention at the hands of the convention. It is a matter that never appears to interest educators "to any very alarming extent." It is never referred to in educational journals. It is not discussed by state, county, or city superintendents in making their annual reports. It is presumed to be unworthy of their consideration. How the great productive industries of the country would be affected by making everything subservient to a public school system received no attention. It appeared to be taken for granted that if an education was obtained "all else would be added thereto."—*Times.*

IN CONCLUSION.

The convention of the National Teachers' Association has adjourned. Considering that it was in session but three days, and that they were the hottest ones of the season, it made a good many recommendations. Resolutions were passed by the association, or by sections, recommending national aid for the public schools in the southern states, a better system of schools for the Indians, the introduction of free kindergarten instruction, the introduction of instruction in cookery and needlework in all schools in which girls are taught, the establishment of free libraries and night schools, the support of normal schools for all classes of teachers, the enactment of laws for compulsory attendance on schools, the introduction of manual training in all grades of schools, instruction in music, drawing, painting, modeling in clay, light and heavy gymnastics, the extension of the graded system of schools and central supervision into the rural districts, the increase of salaries paid to teachers and superintendents, making the tenure of service of educators permanent, and the granting of pensions to teachers after a certain term of service. They might have saved time by stating that "they wanted the earth and the fulness thereof."—*Times.*

The memorable convention of the National Educational Association stands adjourned. While it has not taken a decided position on the question of manual training, which is destined to be the education of the future, still progress has been made. At the proceedings Thursday, the President of the Department of Industrial Education made a strong plea for it, and argued that it should go hand in hand with the academical system and that manual work was favorable in its influence upon the purely intellectual. Prof. Woodward, of St. Louis, whose manual-training school has a national reputation, said: "It has been found that there are methods of teaching and employing children in kindergarten schools, and I believe that boys of 14 can also be taught in manual training without the book-work suffering a loss." Numerous other instructors gave their testimony as to its value, among them Prof. Caruthers, of Cincinnati, who said that in that city "drones had become hard working students." At the dinner given by the Prang Educational Company, which was attended by a large representation of the most prominent people identified with art and industrial education in this country, there were numerous enthusiastic expressions of opinion in favor of the new departure. At the meeting of the association yesterday morning, Gen. Francis Walker, the president of the famous Massachusetts Institute of Technology, whose certificates are of more practical value to a boy entering the world of work than the diploma of any school or college, made an argument for manual training, which carried great weight with it and was listened to with unusual interest.—*Tribune.*

A week's visit in the Garden city is worth a year's schooling to the residents of New England and other distant localities. All of them who, while here, intelligently studied what was before them, must go home with their natures broadened, their experience immeasurably increased and otherwise modified, and better prepared to deal with the problems of their various lives.

Chicago has been pleased to afford these visitors its hospitalities. Largely women, they have inundated the city with their cheerful faces, and have afforded novel attractions to the streets. The people of Chicago have been able to inspect in person the Boston school-ma'am, of whom so much has been said and so little known here in the West; and in glancing over this element, and in "sizing it up," the intelligent observer has been able to conclude that the common-school system seems to have been expressly devised for the absorption of the surplus maidens of the New England States. A school-room is not quite the equivalent of a home circle, nor is a gathering of everybody's brats a complete substitute for children of one's own rearing; and yet, in the case of the husbandless woman, the duties of the school life divert the attention from the "what might have been," and partially, at least, crowd out many of the yearnings and regrets of a spinster's lonely life. Without the benignant and capacious school system to serve as a refuge, the hills and valleys of Massachusetts would be studded with statues of innumerable Niobes who, over their failure to secure husbands, would have wept themselves to stone.

It may be that in the contact of eastern spinsterhood and western manhood which has taken place during the present week there may remain some permanent adhesions. It is to be sincerely hoped that such may be the case, and that a few, at least, of the spectacled misses from Boston may remain to grace this city with their culture. The union of the stalwart practicality of the occident with the refinement of the orient could not but result in a product of an incomparable value. The pork of the Garden city united to the beans of the Hub would afford a dish which would nourish a race of intellectual giants.—*Times.*

The Teachers' Convention more than fulfilled all our expectations. It was, in every sense of the word, a splendid triumph. . . . Looking at the whole from the standpoint of an outsider, and yet of an outsider who is intensely interested in educational signs and movements, these three things seemed to be especially noticeable:

1. There is a growing sense of unity in all the departments of instruction. Workers in universities and colleges and academies and common schools join hands in fellowship, and are evidently under an increasing conviction that they are all engaged in one great business. The old envies and jealousies and dislikes no longer exist; or if they do, it is in a greatly modified form. It is no longer a seemly thing to be indifferent. There is an intelligent sympathy pulsing through the whole circle of schools and instructors. Quite likely a great many influences have co-operated to this end; but must not a large share of the credit go to General John Eaton and the remarkable service he has rendered to learning in this country by his administration of the Bureau of Education?

2. There is an evident drawing closer together of those who hitherto have opposed and those who have favored the introduction of manual training into the course of our public school instruction. Five years ago, as was said by President Sheldon on the platform, it was not possible to secure a place in the programme for the discussion of the claims and merits of manual training in the public schools. But at this meeting General Walker and Miss Fay had the house with them; and when the vast concourse of teachers present was asked to vote on the question whether they deemed manual training a matter of importance to all who have the fashioning of school policies, the affirmative had it unanimously. At the same time the approbation accorded to President Peabody, of the University of Illinois, when he ventured to call in question the high moral value of manual training insisted on by the extreme advocates of the system, showed clearly that some people have not yet got so far along as to expect manual training is to usher in the millenium. Perhaps these people who were disposed to go along with President Peabody in his mild suggestion of criticism, were thinking of some contractors, or of some carpenters and masons whom they have known, who, in spite of all they have learned about the absolute necessity of having bricks and stones and timbers accurately adjusted in order to meet the requirements of the case, will yet lie, and cheat, and do sham work.

3. There is a deepening conviction that more must be made of the religious element in our American educational system. Those who have been in regular attendance upon these annual meetings of the Association, did not hesitate to say there was a marked improvement perceptible in the religious tone of the papers and addresses, and in the temper of the whole body. A capital proof of this was the reception given to Dr. Strong's paper on the Christian College. He was cheered repeatedly, and in the debates which followed, the views of the paper were enthusiastically endorsed over and over again. There were doubtless some materialists in the convention; but only one man of all whom we heard speak ventured to announce a theory of materialism and to put it forward as a proper basis on which to stand and work the cure of human selfishness. The overwhelming sentiment of the convention set in the direction of Christian truth and Christian methods and Christian aims. Materialism, atheism, infidelity, agnosticism, are clearly at a discount in the estimation of a large number of our educators. It is one of the shining tokens of the time that there are so many in this great body of teachers whose influence is simply measureless, who feel that they cannot get on without a personal faith in a personal God.—*Advance.*

The editor of *Intelligence*, in careful review of the meeting, says, "The meeting of 1887 has passed into history as the largest meeting of the kind ever held. The treasury shows that there were over ten thousand paying members; which means that there were at least twelve or thirteen thousand persons in attendance.

A very common sentiment seems to be that we do not need another big meeting for a long time to come; that enough has now been done for the treasury and that the next few years at least should be devoted to "education." There is good reason why any set of officers and any local committee, may hold to this sentiment If any one wants to know what the reason is, he is referred to some of the last local committee who put in three or four solid weeks of hard work. But why this sentiment should prevail so generally is not so plain as might appear at first.

To us it seemed as if from a purely educational standpoint the meeting was as successful as the meetings of the Association have generally been, if not more so. The audiences were large, attentive, and interested. The subjects discussed were as practical and timely as well could be. The speakers stuck to their texts with exceptional fidelity and presented good papers. To be sure a person loitering at the hotel or Exposition, or on the street, found himself surrounded by such a large number of companions that it seemed as if the various meetings which ought to be going on must be disorganized or deserted. But the loungers had only to bestir themselves a little to discover their fallacy. The meetings lacked nothing that they ever have when the attendance is smaller. In fact, will not this sentiment against big meetings, when driven to its last retreat, be found lodged mainly in some selfish disappointment in not being able to appropriate one's friends so exclusively, or make oneself so conspicuous, as in a smaller crowd?

On the other hand, beyond all doubt, large meetings are a great help to the cause of popular education. They arrest the attention of the public. Teachers were never thought about and talked about by the commercial classes so much before. The daily papers spread the full proceedings before hosts of readers as they would not have done for a meeting of a few hundreds. If sound educational ideas were not planted widely in the public mind it was the fault of the educators themselves. Why is not a big meeting every year under like favorable conditions desirable? Nobody should claim that these meetings are the product of educational enthusiasm or ardor. But they certainly tend to beget enthusiasm, and more than all, they give with the populace a prominence and standing to education and teachers which is of large value.

The praise of President Sheldon as a presiding officer was in all mouths. No such convention ever had a better moderator. Prompt, decisive, invariably good natured, every speaker had to come to time and the audience did not once feel imposed upon. Had a man of a little less vigor and ability been at the helm, it is not pleasant to contemplate what would have been the result of such a mammoth meeting.

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